ſent to this place (Kelſo) to be exchanged. The perſon into whoſe hands it thus fell (Mr William Muir, junior, copperſmith, Kelſo) fortunately diſcovered its value, and has obligingly furniſhed us with it on the preſent occaſion. The copy we have taken, and which is now ſubjoined, is exact and literal; the ſpelling, punctuation, and even the errors of the original, being ſcrupulouſly preſerved.

The Public will perceive, that this intereſting epiſtle is without date, and is ſigned only with initials *. But, independent of the ſimple narrative of the means by which it has been reſcued from oblivion, it ſeems to carry in it ſuch intrinſic marks of authenticity, that no one who is in the leaſt acquainted with the peculiar character of the productions of Thomſon, can heſitate a moment in aſcribing it to him. Beſides gratifying that laudable curioſity which the public naturally feel to become acquainted with the moſt minute circumſtances in the lives of eminent men, we conſider this letter as peculiarly intereſting in many other points of view. It appears to have been written at a moſt critical period of the author's life, being ſoon after his arrival in England, whether he went upon the death of his mother. It exhibits the intereſting ſpectacle of an elegant and inexperienced mind, labouring under the preſſure of pecuniary embarraſſments, and ſtruggling with thoſe feelings of conſcious dignity, by which he had long been prevented from ſoliciting aſſiſtance, and which the horrors of impending indigence alone enabled him to overcome. But the account he then proceeds to give of the origin and partial ſucceſs of "THE SEASONS," more nearly concerns the Public, and merits the attention not only of the Biographer, whom it enables to throw light on an obſcure part of the hiſtory of this work; but alſo of the Philoſopher, whom it muſt forcibly impreſs with the reflection, that the moſt trivial circumſtances ſometimes affect the whole tenor of a man's life, and that, by cauſes apparently the moſt inefficient, his fame and fortune may be for ever decided, as well as the nature and extent of his influence on mankind. Had not Mr Riccleton, a man who is now altogether unknown as a poet, compoſed a ſmall production on Winter, the immortal "SEASONS" might never have exiſted; and thus, not only might Scotland have derived comparatively ſmall luſtre from the genius of her Thomſon, but the world might never have been delighted with the enchanting imagery and glowing deſcriptions of the POET of the YEAR.

* From the poſt mark it ſeems to have been written from Barnet.

COPY.

D Sr

I WOULD chide you for the ſlackneſs of your correſpondence; but, having blamed you wrongeouſly laſt time, I ſhall ſay nothing, 'till I hear from you, which I hope will be ſoon.

Ther's a little buſineſs I would communicate to you, before I come to the more entertaining part of our correſpondence.

I'm going (hard taſk!) to complain, and beg your aſſiſtance—When I came up here, I brought very little money along wt. me; expecting ſome more, upon the ſelling of Widehope, which was to have been ſold that day my mother was buried. now 'tis unſold yet: but will be diſpoſed of, as ſoon, as it can be conveniently done: tho' indeed, 'tis perplex'd wt. ſome difficulties. I was a long time here living att my own charges, and you know how expenſive that is; this, together with the furniſhing of myſelf wt. cloaths, linnens, one thing and another, *to fitt me for any buſineſs, of this nature here*, neceſſarly oblidg'd me to contract ſome debt. being a ſtranger here, 'tis a wonder how I got any credit; but, I cant expect 'twill be long ſuſtain'd, unleſs I immediately clear it. even, now, I belive it is at a criſis. my freinds have no money to ſend me, till the land is ſold:

and my creditors will not wait 'till then—you know what the conſequences would be—now the aſſiſtance I would beg of you, and which I know, if in your power, you won't refuſe me, is, a letter of credit, on ſome merchant, banker, or ſuch like perſon in London, for the matter of twelve pound; till I get money, upon the ſelling of the land, which I'm, att laſt, certain off. if you could either give it me yourſelf, or procure it; tho you dont owe it to my merit, yet, you owe it to your own nature, which I know ſo well as to ſay no more on the ſubject; only allow me to add, that, when I firſt fell upon ſuch a project (the only thing I have for it in my preſent circumſtances) knowing the ſelfiſh inhumane temper of the generality, of the world; you were the firſt perſon that offer'd to my thoughts, as one, to whom I had the confidence to make ſuch an addreſs

Now, I imagine you ſeized wt. a fine, romantic, kind of a melancholy, on the fading of the year. now I figure you wandering, philoſophical, and penſive, amidſt the brown, wither'd groves: while the leaves ruſtle under your feet. the ſun gives a farewell parting gleam and the birds

Stir the faint note, and but attempt to ſing.

then again, when the heavns wear a more gloomy aſpect, the winds whiſtle, and the waters ſpout, I ſee you in the well-known Cleugh, beneath the ſolemn arch of tall, thick, embowring trees, liſtening to the amuſing lull of the many ſleep, moſs-grown caſcades; while deep, divine contemplation, the genius of the place, prompts each ſwelling awfull thought. I'm ſure, you would not reſign your part in that ſcene att an eaſy rate. none e'er enjoy'd it to the height you do, and you're worthy of it. ther I walk in ſpirit, and diſport in its beloved gloom. this country, I am in, is not very entertaining. no variety but that of woods, and them we have in abundance. but where is the living ſtream? the airy mountain? and the hanging rock? with twenty other things that elegantly pleaſe the lover of nature?—Nature delights me in every form, I am juſt now painting her, in her moſt lugubrious dreſs; for my own amuſement, deſcribing winter as it preſents itſelf. after my firſt propoſal of the ſubject,

I ſing of winter, and his gelid reign;
Nor let a ryming inſect of the ſpring,
Deem it a barren theme. to me 'tis full
Of manly charms; to me, who court the ſhade, [ſhun
Whom, the gay ſeaſons ſuit not, and who
The glare of ſummer. Welcom! kindred glooms!
Drear awfull wintry, horrors, welcome all! &c.

After this introduction, I ſay, which inſiſts for a few lines further I proſecute the purport of the following ones

Nor can I o departing Summer! chooſe
But conſecrate one pitying line to you;
Sing your laſt temper'd days, and ſunny calms,
That chear the ſpirits, and ſerene the ſoul.

Then terrible floods, and high winds, that uſually happen about this time of year, and have already happen'd here, (I wiſh you have not felt them too dreadfully) the firſt produced the encloſed lines; the laſt are not completed. Mr Rickleton's poem on Winter, which I ſtill have, firſt put the deſign into my head. in it are ſome maſterly ſtrokes that awaken'd me—being only a preſent amuſement, 'tis ten to one but I drop it in when e'er another fancy comes croſs

I belive it had been much more for your entertainment, if in this letter I had cited other people inſtead of myſelf: but I muſt refer that 'till another time. If you have not ſeen it already, I have juſt now in my hands an original of Sr Alexander Brands (the craz'd Scots Knight wt the woful countenance) you would reliſh. I belive it might make Mis John catch hold of his knees, which I take in him to be a degree of mirth, only inferiour, to falling back again with an elaſtic ſpring. 'tis very (*here a word is obliterated*) printed

printed in the evening poſt; ſo, perhaps you have ſeen theſe panegyrics of our declining Bard; one on the Princeſſes birth-day; the other on his Majeſty's, in (*obliterated*) cantos: they're written in the ſpirit of a complicated crazineſs.

I was in London lately a night; and in the old playhouſe ſaw a comedy acted, called, *Love makes a Man, or the Fop's Fortune*, where I beheld Miller and Cibber ſhine to my infinite entertainment. in and about London this month of Sept: near a hundred people have dy'd by accident and ſuicide. ther was one blackſmith, tyr'd of the hammer, who hang'd himſelf, and left written behind him this conciſe epitaph

I, Joe Pope
liv'd wt out hope
And dy'd by a rope

or elſe ſome epigrammatic Muſe has bely'd him.

Mr Muir has ample fund for politicks, in the preſent poſture of affairs, as you'll find by the public news. I ſhould be glad to know that great miniſter's frame juſt now.——Keep it to yourſelf.—you may whiſper it too in Mis John's ear.—far otherwiſe is his lately myſterious Br. Mr Tait employed.—Started a ſuperanuated fortune, and juſt now upon the full ſcent.—'tis comical enough to ſee him from amongſt the rubbiſh of his controverſial divinity and politics furbiſhing up his antient ruſty gallantry.

Your's ſincerely, J. T.

* *Remember me to all friends. Mr Rickle, Mis John, Br John, &c.*

* This and the other paſſages printed in Italics are written on the margin of the original letter.

TOPOGRAPHY AND NATURAL HISTORY OF SCOTLAND.

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 156.

COUNTY OF WIGTON.

THE county of Wigton is bounded on the eaſt by the ſhire of Kirkcudbright and Wigton Bay; on the ſouth and weſt by the Iriſh channel; and on the north by the ſhire of Ayr: its figure is very irregular, the greateſt extent does not exceed 30 miles; and no part is more than 12 miles from the ſea. It is ſometimes called *Upper* or *Weſt* Galloway. The Northern part is very mountainous and barren, hence it is called the *Moors*. The *Bay of Luce* from the ſouth, and *Loch Ryan* from the north, project a great way into the land, and cut off the weſtern diviſion of this ſhire, called the *Rinns* of Galloway. Of this diviſion the peninſula which ſtretches to the ſouth, terminates in a rocky promontory, called the *Mull of Galloway*. The want of coal is much felt in this diſtrict. The rearing of cattle is a principal object with the farmers in general. The grain raiſed is chiefly barley and oats; potatoes are alſo much cultivated, and green crops in general coming into the ordinary rotation, but little wheat is raiſed. The great military road from Carliſle to Portpatrick, goes through this diſtrict, and is of much benefit; the road along the coaſt is wild, rugged, and unpleaſant, there being little or no wood to diverſify the ſcenery. Agriculture has of late made very conſiderable advances under the patronage and example of the Earl of Galloway. His Lordſhip has alſo been very ſucceſsful in his plantations; though on the ſea coaſt they are in a very thriving ſtate, particularly the maritime pine and Scots fir. Marl and ſea ſhells are the common manures; the average rent is 10s. per acre, and peat is the common fuel.

BUITLE. This pariſh fell properly under Kirkcudbrightſhire, lying in what is called Lower Galloway; bordering on the Solway frith it has the advantages of navigation. The length is about 8 miles, and the breadth 5. The number of its inhabitants is about 850. The ſurface is various, the hills are green, and afford good paſture; the ſoil of the low ground is naturally good, and ſeldom diſappoints the judicious im-

improver; it is also well inclosed, chiefly by stone dykes. The south end is watered by the Solway frith, which abounds in fish; the polypus is found here. Almost all the mosses abound in marl. Specimens of talc and asbestus have been found on the hills, also specimens of spars of different kinds, and iron ores. Buittle castle, of which little now remains but the vaults and ditches, is a fortress of great antiquity.

Penningham. This parish is at least 16 miles long, and upwards of 6 broad, containing 2000 inhabitants. The military road from Carlisle to Portpatrick runs through the middle of it, and in a great measure divides the good from the bad ground; the lower being fertile, the upper cold and moorish. The beautiful bridge over the river Cree, which unites the shires of Galloway and Kirkcudbright, built about 50 years ago, has had a wonderful effect upon the population and increase of Newtonstewart, which is now a very thriving village.

Wigton. This parish is of an irregular oblong shape, measuring about 6 miles from E. to W. and 4 from N. to S. The number of its inhabitants is 1350. The surface is much diversified with hill, rising grounds and plains. On the banks of the river Blandenoch, and in the plains, the soil is very productive, being light and dry. There is moor and moss interspersed over different parts, as in most of this district. Wigton is but a small town, in which little or no trade is carried on, though it be the county town, and a presbytery seat. The progress of agriculture is not great. Excepting the burgh acres, the usual rent is from 10s. to 20s. for arable ground, the whole yielding about 2000l. per annum. At the west end of the parish are the *standing stones of Torhouse*, consisting of about nineteen large stones of granite, in the form of a circle, supposed to be druidical temples.

Whithorn. The parish of Whithorn measures from north to south about 8, and from east to west 4½ miles, and contains nearly 1900 inhabitants. The face of the country is variegated with hill and dale; it is, in general, fertile and well subdivided, chiefly by dykes of stone and lime. Planting is going on with great spirit by the different proprieters, and the face of the country is every day improving. The town, consisting of only one principal street, is tolerably well built; there is a beautiful stream of water divides the main street, over which there is a bridge. Whithorn is a place of great antiquity, and many vestiges of camps and fortresses may be traced out. The seats of Captain Hawthorn, of Castlewigg, and Mr Stewart of Tonderghie, are worthy of the traveller's notice. Specimens of lead and copper are found in this parish; and both marble and slate quarries have been discovered, though not fully wrought. The isle of Whithorn is a good and safe port for vessels of a small burden.

Kirkinner parish is about 12 miles long and 10 broad, containing upwards of 1150 inhabitants. The appearance is in general hilly, and the soil thin and light, the carse ground excepted. The river Blandenoch separates it from Wigton. The parish of Kirkcowan was formerly united to this, and may come under the same general description.

Mochrum. The parish of Mochrum from west to east measures 10, and from north to south between 4 and 5 miles; it contains 1400 inhabitants. The general aspect is rather hilly, tho' it is much diversified with flats and small risings; the gross rental is about 5000l. Sterling. Along the bay of Luce the soil is light and productive. In the middle the soil is thin and gravelly. The *old place* of Mochrum is a very picturesque old building, surrounded by lakes. Merton Castle, lately built, the residence of Sir William Maxwell, is situated on the banks of a fine lake, and commands an extensive prospect of the sea, and of the English and Irish coast.

Sorbie. This parish where longest is about 6 miles, and where broadest, about 3; and contains 1070 inhabitants.

A

A great part lies on the bay of Wigton, and about one third is in tillage.

KIRKMAIDEN. This parish lying in the south extremity of the county is 10 miles long and 2 broad, containing upwards of 1380 inhabitants. Its general appearance is hilly, though lying on the sea coast, there are several bays commodious for shipping. In some places, however, the shore is bold and rocky. The minerals are whinstone and slate. In a cave, of which there are a considerable number here, there is a petrifying water. The country has a naked appearance, the keen air blowing from the sea checking the growth of trees.

STONEYKIRK. This parish which contains about 17,000 acres, lies along the bay of Luce; it contains 1365 inhabitants, and yields of rent 1369l. Sterling. There is a considerable cod-fishery, salmon-fishery, and one of mackeral here. Several round mounds, the most remarkable of which is 60 feet high, and a square tower 45 feet high, with the remains of some Druid temples, are pointed out as vestiges of antiquity.

INCH. The parish of Inch is 9 miles long, and upwards of 8 where broadest; containing 1450 inhabitants. One half of the parish forms an extensive plain between Lochryan and the bay of Luce. On the east it rises gradually to the height of a range of hills. The low ground is light and sandy. The hills abound in moss. There are no less than 15 fresh water lakes here, all which are plentifully stored with fish; they are also frequented by swans in winter, which emigrate to Ireland during the summer. Two of these called the lakes of castle Kennedy, are fine pieces of water. Castle Kennedy was originally the seat of the Earls of Cassilis, but a considerable time ago fell into possession of the late Earl of Stair, who improved it much. Some years since it was burnt down by accident. The castle is situated on an elevated peninsula between two lakes, which communicate with each other by means of an artificial canal, over which there is a fine bridge. The grounds are well sheltered and finely diversified with lakes, and surrounded with wood, and are laid out in a very superior style. There are also several mineral springs here, chiefly sulphureous or chalybeate.

NEW LUCE. This parish is of a very irregular figure; where longest it is about 10, and where broadest, 6 miles. There is not much arable land in the parish, the greatest part being made up of hills and rocks. The yearly rent is 1100l. sterling. Two small rivers water it, the Luce and Cross, the banks of which are pretty fertile. There had once been lead wrought in this parish, but though very rich ore was found at a place called Knockbay, all operations have long been discontinued.

OLD LUCE. New Luce was separated from this parish about the year 1646. They formerly went by the general name of Luce. It is situated in the heart of the county, and is 10 miles long, and from 2 to 7 broad, and contains about 1200 inhabitants. The parish is deeply intersected by the bay of Luce: There are several other fine bays here. The general appearance is hilly, tho' the highest does not exceed 200 feet above the level of the sea. About one half of the parish is arable, the whole produces 3,500l. sterling per annum.

PORTPATRICK. This parish is a square of about 3 miles, and contains nearly 1000 inhabitants; the surface is hilly, and the greater part of the land is moor and moss. Cairnsiat, the highest hill is 800 miles above the level of the sea. The town is situated on the nearest point of the whole island to Ireland, and the passage from it the best, being only 20 miles over, and of course is much resorted to for that purpose. The castle of Dunskey, situated on the brink of a tremendous precipice, must have been a place of great strength and security.

LESWALT. This parish forms a part of the peninsula called the Rinns of Galloway. Its greatest length is 7, its greatest breadth 6 miles; and contains

tains 1200 inhabitants. The appearance of the parish is much diversified with hills, valleys, and meadows. The low ground is light and fertile; the high ground is wet, spungy, and covered with heath and moss. The whole yields about 2000l. annually. The coast is bold and rocky, but the Irish channel affords excellent fishing. Lochnaw castle, a very ancient edifice, is the only considerable building in the parish.

KIRKCOLM. This parish forms a small peninsula in the bay of Wigton, and contains 950 inhabitants. The surface is finely diversified with rising grounds, the whole of which are cultivated.

STRANRAER. This parish is 10 miles long, and nearly 2 broad, and contains about 1600 inhabitants. Stranraer is a royal burgh, and a presbytery seat; it is situated very pleasantly at the head of Lochryan, which is a safe and commodious bay. The fishery and the coasting trade employs a good many vessels. The chief manufactures carryed on here, are tanning of leather and making coarse linen.

GLASSERTON. From south to north this parish measures about 7 miles, from east to west 2, and contains nearly 900 inhabitants. The aspect is hilly, rugged and unequal. The hills are rocky, chiefly granite or schistus, and, for the most part, covered with heath. The soil is loam, or gravel, peat earth or clay. The chief objects of husbandry are the rearing of cattle; black cattle have the principal place, but both sheep and swine are bred here in considerable quantities. The house of Physgill, the seat of R. Stewart, Esq; is spacious and elegant.

CORSEFAIRN. This parish is mostly hilly, there being scarcely 1000 acres arable: it produces about 2800l. Sterling yearly. The number of inhabitants is not more than 465. The chief attention of the farmer is paid to the raising of black cattle and sheep. The number of chalybeate springs in this parish are indications of the abundance of iron, but none is wrought.

(*To be continued.*)

HUNTING ANECDOTE.

EXPERIENCE has uniformly shown, that no degree of plenty obtained by the labours of others, or by exertions of a different kind, has been able to subdue that ardour by which many are impelled to incur hardships, fatigues, and even dangers, in pursuit of an object, which would be extremely trivial, were it not for the gratification experienced in the very pursuit. What but the chace (or war, which is an image of it) can urge the rich man to forego the pleasures of luxurious indolence, and submit to privations and bodily sufferings which for a time put him upon a level with the lowest of his train?—while the poor man is equally prone to encounter hazards of all kinds for the sake of a participation in the same animating delights. M. de Sauffure, in his travels among the Alps, giving an account of the dangerous sport of chamois hunting, relates the following circumstance: "I knew a young man, of an engaging figure and countenance, just married to a charming woman, who, on conversing upon this subject, said to me, My grandfather died in the chace, so did my father, and so persuaded am I that the same will be my destiny, that I call this sack, which I take with me on my hunting expeditions, my winding-sheet, because I am certain I shall have no other. And yet, Sir, were you to offer to make my fortune on condition of renouncing chamois-hunting, I would not comply." Within two years the poor man's prediction was verified. M. de Sauffure, in accounting for this extraordinary passion, which could not be excited by any reasonable hopes of profit, justly attributes its power to the alternations of hope and fear, and the perpetual agitation of the mind from these strong emotions, which actuate the hunter as they do the gamester, the warrior, and the navigator.

A GENERAL VIEW OF DISCOVERIES, INVENTIONS, &c.

WITHIN THE LAST FIFTEEN YEARS.

THE preſent century is not more diſtinguiſhed from all equal periods of time, by a general diffuſion of philoſophical inquiry, than the preſent from preceding ages, by the application of ſcience to practical purpoſes.

The energy of nations excited and exerciſed by war, is turned to other projects, on the return of peace. At the concluſion of the American war, in which the beſt part of Europe had been involved, the genius of mechanical invention, and mercantile enterprize, already active, diſplayed itſelf with redoubled alacrity, and in new channels. The price of labour has increaſed one third; our exports have been more than doubled, and our imports augmented in a ſtill higher ratio. The whole face of the buſy world has, in our days, undergone a complete change. The grand levers of ſcience move every thing on a greater ſcale; and new diſcoveries, of the ſtate and the wants of tribes and nations, open new fields of mercantile adventure. The diffuſion of letters; the improvements in navigation by magnetiſm, optics, and aſtronomy; roads and canals; and correſpondence by ſignals, by and by to be applied in buſineſs as well as war: all theſe, and other inferior circumſtances, have quickened the intercourſe of men, and the tranſportation of all the articles of commerce, to an aſtoniſhing degree. Voyages both by ſea and land, are now performed twice, nay, ſometimes thrice as quickly as formerly. Goods are carried twice as ſoon, and twice as cheap. Moſt things are manufactured at half their former price, and with four times their former expedition.

In this country two *inventions*, pre-eminent above all others, demand particular mention; the ſteam-engine, and the machinery for ſpinning, and weaving cotton, and yarn of other materials.

The ſteam engine, approaching to the nature of a *perpetuum mobile*, or rather an *animal*, as incapable of laſſitude as of ſenſation, produces coals, works metals, moves machines, and is certainly the nobleſt *drudge* that was ever employed by the hand of art.

The invention of the cotton mills, with various other inventions to which this gave birth, has been, above all others, a ſource of wealth to this iſland. The fine linen of Egypt, the purpureal cloths of Tyre and Sidon, were not ſo beneficial to thoſe countries, in ancient times, as the fine cottons of Lancaſhire and Paiſley are to Great Britain. The former were worn only by mighty men, and the princes of the earth: in all parts of the world, at preſent all ranks and conditions, men and women, princes and peaſants, are clothed with the produce of Britiſh induſtry, and Britiſh invention. The mechanical arts, particularly thoſe of ſpinning and weaving, of conſtructing carriages, and machinery of various ſorts, have been carried to ſuch a pitch, that a common mechanic can now wear better clothes, and enjoy more of the comforts and conveniencies of life, than an ancient ſatrap, king, or emperor.

While the mechanical arts are improved, thoſe of genius, or the imitative arts are, at beſt, but ſtationary, if not retrograde. Let us compare an old Roman coin to a Birmingham medal, and we ſhall recognize the elegant and graceful figure, ſtruck upon a rude and irregular piece of metal, to be the work of genius; while the ſpruce phyſiognomy on the modern medal, ſtruck off and rounded with the greateſt care and neatneſs; is evidently leſs indebted, for any excellence it may poſſeſs, to ingenuouſneſs of deſign, than to the machinery employed in the execution. In architecture and ſculpture, the inferiority of our genius to that of the ancients appear in this, that we adopt their manner, though encumbered with a mythology univerſally exploded, and with various alluſions at this day utterly unintelligible. A like obſervation may be made on the preſent ſtate of all the arts of deſign. Poetry, of the higheſt,

that is, the epic kind, we have none. Deſcriptive poetry ſtill exiſts, ſupported, and inſpired by the ſublime views of philoſophy, in theſe times of inquiry and preciſion, the only muſes. The ſprightlineſs of the ode is cramped by the ſame cauſes that flatten all attempts at epic compoſition. A few tragedies have been compoſed, even in the preſent age, which breathe the pathetic and heroic ſentiments of nature, rouzed by grand and intereſting occaſions: and the corruption of the times, united with a certain dexterity and quaintneſs of obſervation, has produced a few tolerable comedies. But the bold and expreſſive tone of both the tragic and comic muſe, ſince the times of Shakſpeare, Congreve, Vanburgh, Otway, Lee, Farquhar, and Thomſon, has been exchanged, on the whole, for ſentimental whining, and pert and vulgar vivacity, employed by the microſcope of little minds, attentive to the minute particularities or *bizarreries* of character, and ſingularities of ſituation, rather than to the great and affecting diſplays of human nature. Our comedies, and even our tragedies, are, in general, nothing elſe, than tranſlations from the French, or a juxta-poſition, rather than a connexion and dependency of ſcenes, drawn from ſome wretched novel, by ſome laborious artificer of plays, with greater regard to the humours of the day, than the conduct of the mind, the laws of compoſition, or to poetical juſtice. Accordingly, the indignation, and the ridicule of the muſe, ſo much dreaded in the reign of Queen Anne, and George I. has no longer any mighty terrors. Poetry has become contemptible, ſince ſhe ſuffered herſelf to be led blindfold by temporary caprices and whims, inſtead of flying on the wings of general maxims, opinions, intereſts, and paſſions: in other words, ſince ſhe became, not indeed in all, but in ſo many inſtances, a procureſs, not a cenſor of vice and folly. There is at preſent what is called a *rage* for *muſic*. From ſeveral accidental cauſes, rather than any refinement of taſte or manners, muſic is violently in faſhion: but tho' *harmony*, and contra-punto be well underſtood, and carried into great complication, pathos and melody are uſually ſacrificed or neglected. Many perſons there are of both ſexes, who ſeek and acquire a reputation for ſkill in muſic, by dextrous and quick execution, without the leaſt perception of melody, or ſweet ſound, nay, and by ſome who are almoſt deſtitute of the ſenſe of hearing. This ſhows not the progreſs of muſic, but the prevalence of faſhion. In poetry, and in muſic too, we know of a very few exceptions. But to ſpecify theſe is no part of this general ſketch of the preſent ſtate and application of the arts and ſciences.

Of this retrogradation, or at leaſt ſtagnation of the liberal arts, contraſted with the progreſs of mechanical invention, curioſity is ſtrongly prompted to inveſtigate the cauſe.

The circumſtances that nouriſhed and matured the liberal arts in Greece and Rome, ſuch as an enlivening climate as well as government, and the moſt beautiful models of imitation in the natural and the moral world, have been pointed out, with juſt and profound criticiſm, by Mr Blackwell, in his life of Homer, and by other writers. The advantages of the inductive or experimental philoſophy over all theoritical ſyſtems, however plauſible and ingenious, have alſo been illuſtrated. The ſpirit of avarice, in a commercial age, has alſo been obſerved, as grovelling and impotent; and wealth, negligent and prone to ſenſual indulgence: ſo that, in times of accumulated wealth, and extended commerce, men loſe a deſire of excellence in a propenſity to enjoyment. But this argument, if juſt, as it no doubt is to a certain degree, bears equally againſt the advancement of ſcience, with its uſeful application, and the liberal arts. Setting this therefore aſide as a co-efficient in algebra, let us ſeek for a ſolution of our problem, why the mechanical arts have flouriſhed, and ſtill flouriſh in modern

times,

times, more than the liberal; or, more generally, why the fine arts are not in a ſtate of rapid advancement, from circumſtances inherent in their own nature.

Diſcoveries of all kinds, with their application to uſeful inventions, are not commonly the effects of genius or extraordinary capacity, ſo much as of time, and well-directed induſtry. The diſcoveries and inventions of paſt, ſerve as hints for exerciſing the contrivance of preſent times: and thus lay a wider and wider foundation for building the grand pyramid of ſcience; in the ſame manner that the accumulation of wealth, or moveable capital, multiplies manufactures, and enlarges the ſphere of commerce. In the common arts of life, the knowledge of individuals paſſes from generation to generation, or, as in the tribes and caſts of the Hindoos, from father to ſon. In the fine arts the human mind is bounded by itſelf: nor can the genius of one be tranſmitted and transfuſed into another. Apelles, Homer, Xenophon, and other great men of antiquity, could not leave their genius behind them; and therefore we admire, without being able to equal them. But while we regard ſuch men as our maſters, we look upon what are called the mechanical arts as then only in their infancy. On the whole, the mechanical arts, allied to ſcience, are in their nature progreſſive: the liberal, dependent on individual genius, and influenced and formed by temporary and local circumſtances, more variable and deſultory.

ACCOUNT OF THE NEST OF THE REPUBLICAN;

WITH SOME PARTICULARS RESPECTING THAT EXTRAORDINARY BIRD.

IN the courſe of my laſt day's journey. I had obſerved on the way a tree, with an enormous neſt of thoſe birds to which I have given the appellation of Republicans; and I had intended, as ſoon as I arrived at my camp, to ſend and have it cut down, that I might open the hive, and examine its ſtructure in its minuteſt parts. Accordingly I diſpatched a few men with a waggon to bring it to me. When it arrived, I cut it to pieces with a hatchet, and ſaw that the principal and fundamental piece conſiſted of a maſs of Boſhmen's graſs, without any mixture, but ſo compact and firmly knit together as to be impenetrable to the rain. This nucleus is the commencement of the ſtructure; and each bird builds and applies it to its particular neſt. But theſe cells are formed only beneath and around the maſs; the upper ſurface remains void, without, however, being uſeleſs; for, as it has a projecting rim, and is a little inclined, it ſerves to let the water run off, and preſerves each dwelling from the rain. Figure to yourſelf a huge irregular maſs, the ſummit forming a kind of roof, and all the other parts of the ſurface completely covered with cells, ſqueezed one againſt another, and you will have a tolerably accurate idea of theſe ſingular edifices.

Each cell is three or four inches in diameter, which is ſufficient for the bird. But as they are all in contact with one another, through the greater part of the ſurface of the maſs, they appear to the eye to form but one building, and are diſtinguiſhable from each other only by a little external aperture, which ſerves as an entrance to the neſt; and even this is ſometimes common to three different neſts, one of which is ſituate at the bottom, and the other at the ſides.

Paterſon, in his travels, mentions this ſubject of natural hiſtory, but his attention being too much employed by others which were more particularly intereſting to him, he was unable to examine it with ſufficient care. According to him, the number of cells increaſing in proportion to the increaſe of inhabitants, the old ones become "ſleeping-rooms, and ſtreets of communication, formed by line and level."

No doubt, as the republic increaſes,

the cells muſt be multiplied alſo. But it is eaſy to imagine, that as the augmentation can take place only on the ſurface, the new buildings will neceſſarily cover old ones, which muſt therefore be abandoned.

Should theſe even, contrary to all probability, be able to ſubſiſt, it may be preſumed that the depth of their ſituation, by preventing any circulation and renewal of the air, would render them ſo extremely hot as to be uninhabitable. But while they thus became uſeleſs, they would remain what they were before, real neſts, and change neither into ſtreets nor ſleeping-rooms*.

The large neſt that I examined, was one of the moſt conſiderable I had any where ſeen in the courſe of my journey, and contained three hundred and twenty cells, which, ſuppoſing a male and female to each, announced a ſociety of ſix hundred and forty individuals.

Such a calculation, however, would not be exact. I have ſpoken above of birds among which one male is in common to ſeveral females, becauſe the females are much more numerous than the females. The ſame is the caſe with many other ſpecies, both in the environs of the Cape and in the colony; but it is particularly ſo among the Republicans. Whenever I have fired at a flock of theſe birds, I have always killed four times as many females as males.

For the reſt, theſe birds have nothing very remarkable in their plumage. It is an uniform brown grey, diverſified by a few black ſpots on the ſides, and a large patch of the ſame colour on the throat. The male is a little larger than the female; in other reſpects they exactly reſemble each other.

It often happens that one republic is expelled by another. This may eaſily be conceived; and I have already had occaſion to remark, that I had ſeen one of their towns become the conqueſt of a troop of little parrots.

The birds that commit theſe depredations are thoſe which, like the barbets, pies, titmice, and the parrots I have juſt mentioned, poſſeſs a ſuperiority in offenſive weapons, by the ſtrength of their bills, which the weak and unfortunate proprietors cannot reſiſt. But among theſe intruders are none but ſuch as make their neſts in holes, or the hollows of trees, like the ſpecies I have enumerated.

Vaillant's New Travels.

* We find in Paterſon a particular account of the neſts in queſtion, but nothing that at all anſwers to the idea of ſleeping-rooms, which is probably a miſconception of the French tranſlator.

METHOD OF PREPARING SKELETONS OF LEAVES.

THE ſkeleton or fibrous part of leaves may be prepared by the following eaſy method, and, when neatly executed, will afford a highly elegant and pleaſing ſpectacle.

The leaves ſelected for this purpoſe ſhould be of their full growth, and free from blemiſhes. Thoſe which are naturally of a leſs ſucculent or juicy texture are beſt calculated for the purpoſe; as the apricot, apple, cherry, aſh, box, and innumerable others. They muſt be laid in a large pan of water, to be renewed from time to time. In about the ſpace of ten or twelve days, more or leſs, according to the degree of ſucculency of the leaves, they will be found to be greatly ſoftened; and the outward ſkin or coat will be looſened or ſeparated from the green pulp and fibrous part. When the leaves are arrived at this ſtate, take them out; and, holding each in a baſon of freſh water, with a pair of nippers, take hold of any part of the ſkin on each ſide, and pull it gently away, till it is entirely detached from both ſides of the leaf. Then, with the thumb and finger, gently preſs the leaf while under water, ſhaking it ſlightly from time to time; by which means the green pulpy ſubſtance will be readily freed from the fibres, and the ſkeleton alone will remain: this is to be laid on a piece of bloſſom or blotting-

paper

paper till it is dry, and then placed between the leaves of a book, or between freſh papers, to flatten. The chief care requiſite in the preparation of theſe vegetable ſkeletons conſiſts in keeping the leaves a ſufficient length of time in the water, to allow the outward ſkin to be ſeparated with perfect eaſe and readineſs from the fibrous part. If, upon trial, the ſkin appears not to ſeparate with ſufficient eaſe, the leaves muſt continue in water ſome days longer. It is adviſable not to lay too many leaves in the ſame pan, leſt they ſhould catch or hang upon each other, ſo as to endanger breaking their edges when taken out for preparing.

By purſuing a ſimilar proceſs, ſeveral roots, barks, and other parts of plants, may be anatomiſed with equal ſucceſs. In the Leverian Muſeum may be ſeen ſome of the moſt elegant preparations of vegetable ſkeletons.

In order to heighten the beauty of their appearance, they may be dyed either red or green, or of other colours, by dipping them in proper colouring ingredients, and again drying them.

From the Naturaliſt's Pocket book.

REMARKABLE ACCOUNT OF HIGHLAND ROBBERS.

THERE is ſcarcely an inſtance of any country having made ſo ſudden a change in its morals as the Hebrides. Security and civility poſſeſs every part; yet ſixty years have not elapſed ſince the whole was a den of thieves, of the moſt extraordinary kind. They conducted their plundering excurſions with the utmoſt policy, and reduced the whole art of theft into a regular ſyſtem. From habit it loſt all the appearance of criminality: they conſidered it as labouring in their vocation; and when a party was formed for any expedition againſt their neighbour's property, they and their friends prayed* as earneſtly to heaven for ſucceſs, as if they were engaged in the moſt laudable deſign.

The greateſt crime was that of infidelity among themſelves; the criminal underwent a ſummary trial, and, if convicted, never miſſed of a capital puniſhment. The chieftain had his officers, and different departments of government; he had his judge, to whom he intruſted the deciſion of all civil diſputes; but in criminal cauſes, the chief, aſſiſted perhaps by ſome favourites, always undertook the proceſs.

The principal men of his family, or his officers, formed his council, where every thing was debated reſpecting their expeditions. Eloquence was held in great eſteem among them; for by that they could ſometimes work on their chieftain to change his opinion; for, notwithſtanding he kept the form of a council, he always reſerved the deciſive vote to himſelf.

When one man had a claim on another, but wanted power to make it good, it was held lawful for him to ſteal from his debtor as many cattle as would ſatisfy his demand, provided he ſent notice, as ſoon as he got out of reach of purſuit, that he had them, and would return them, providing ſatisfaction was made on a certain day agreed on.

When a *creach*, or great expedition, had been made againſt diſtant herds, the owners, as ſoon as the diſcovery was made, roſe in arms, and, with all their friends, made inſtant purſuit, tracing the cattle by their track, for perhaps ſcores of miles. Their nicety in diſtinguiſhing that of their cattle from thoſe that were only caſually wandering or driven, was amazingly ſagacious. As ſoon as they were arrived on an eſtate where the track was loſt, they immediately attacked the proprietor, and would oblige him to diſcover the track from his land forwards, or to make good the loſs they had ſuſtained. This

cuſtom

* It is ſaid that the conſtant petition, at grace, of the old Highland chieftains, was delivered with great fervour in theſe terms: "Lord! turn the world upſide down, that Chriſtians may make bread out of it." The plain Engliſh of this pious requeſt was, that the world might become, for their benefit, a ſcene of rapine and confuſion.

cuſtom had the force of law, which gave to the Highlanders this ſurpriſing ſkill in the art of tracking.

It has been obſerved before, that to ſteal, rob, and plunder with dexterity, was eſteemed as the higheſt act of heroiſm. The feuds between the great families was one great cauſe. There was not a chieftain but kept, in ſome remote valley, in the depth of woods and rocks, whole tribes of thieves in readineſs to let looſe againſt his neighbours, when, from ſome public or private reaſon, he did not judge it expedient to reſent openly any real or imaginary affront.—From this motive the greater chieftain-robbers always ſupported the leſſer, and encouraged no ſort of improvement on their eſtates but what promoted rapine.

The greateſt of the heroes in the laſt century was Sir E***n C****n. He long reſiſted the power of Cromwell, but at length was forced to ſubmit. He lived in the neighbourhood of the garriſon fixed by the uſurper at Inverlochy. His vaſſals perſiſted in their thefts till Cromwell ſent orders to the commanding officer, that, on the next robbery, he ſhould ſeize on the chieftain, and execute him within twenty-four hours, in caſe the thief was not delivered up to juſtice. An act of rapine ſoon happened. Sir E***n received the meſſage, who, inſtead of giving himſelf the trouble of looking out for the offender, laid hold of the firſt fellow he met with, and ſent him bound to Inverlochy, where he was immediately hanged. Cromwell, by this ſeverity, put a ſtop to theſe exceſſes, till the time of the Reſtoration, when they were renewed with redoubled violence till the year 1745.

Rob Roy Macgregor was another diſtinguiſhed hero in the latter end of the laſt, and the beginning of the preſent century. He contributed greatly towards forming his profeſſion into a ſcience, and eſtabliſhing the police above-mentioned. The Duke of Montroſe, unfortunately, was his neighbour. Rob Roy frequently ſaved his grace the trouble of collecting his rents, by extorting them from the tenants, and, at the ſame time, giving them formal diſcharges. But it was neither in the power of the Duke, nor any of the gentlemen he plundered, to bring him to juſtice; ſo ſtrongly was he protected by ſeveral great men to whom he was uſeful. Roy had his good qualities: he ſpent his revenue generouſly; and, ſtrange to ſay, was a true friend to the widow and the orphan.

The laſt of any eminence was the celebrated Barriſdale, who carried theſe arts to the higheſt pitch of perfection. Beſides exacting all the common practices, he improved that article of commerce called the *black meal*, to a degree beyond what was ever known to his predeceſſors.—This was a forced levy, ſo called from its being commonly paid in meal, which was raiſed far and wide on the eſtate of every nobleman and gentleman, in order that their cattle might be ſecured from the leſſer thieves, whom he ſecretly preſided over and protected. He raiſed an income of five hundred a year by theſe taxes, and behaved with genuine honour in reſtoring, on proper conſideration, the ſtolen cattle of his friends.—In this he bore ſome reſemblance to Jonathan Wild; but differed in obſerving a ſtrict fidelity to his own gang: yet he was indefatigable in bringing to juſtice any rogues that interfered with his own. He was a man of poliſhed behaviour, fine addreſs, and fine perſon. He conſidered himſelf in a very high light, as a benefactor to the public, and preſerver of general tranquillity.

EXTRAORDINARY ACCOUNT OF A FEMALE INDIAN.

ON the 11th of January, as ſome of my companions were hunting, they ſaw the track of a ſtrange ſnow-ſhoe, which they followed; and at a conſiderable diſtance came to a little hut, where they diſcovered a young woman ſitting alone. As they found that ſhe underſtood their language, they brought her with them

to

to their tents. On examination, ſhe proved to be one of the Weſtern Dog-ribbed Indians, who had been taken priſoner by the Athapuſcow Indians in the ſummer 1770; and in the following ſummer, when the Indians that took her priſoner were near this part, ſhe had eloped from them, with an intent to return to her own country; but the diſtance being ſo great, and having, after ſhe was taken priſoner, been carried in a canoe the whole way, the turnings and windings of the rivers and lakes were ſo numerous, that ſhe forgot the track; ſo ſhe built the hut in which we found her, to protect her from the weather during the winter; and here ſhe had reſided from the firſt ſetting-in of the fall.

From her account of the moons paſſed ſince her elopement, it appeared that ſhe had been near ſeven months without ſeeing a human face: during all which time ſhe had ſupported herſelf very well by ſnaring partridges, rabbits, and ſquirrels; ſhe had alſo two or three beavers, and ſome porcupines. That ſhe did not ſeem to have been in want, was evident, as ſhe had a ſmall ſtock of proviſions by her when ſhe was diſcovered; and was in good health and condition, and I think one of the fineſt women, of a real Indian, that I have ſeen in any part of North America.

The methods practiſed by this poor creature to procure a livelihood were truly admirable, and are great proofs that neceſſity is the real mother of invention. When the few deer ſinews that ſhe had an opportunity of taking with her were all expended in making ſnares, and ſewing her clothing, ſhe had nothing to ſupply their place but the ſinews of the rabbits' legs and feet; theſe ſhe twiſted together for that purpoſe with great dexterity and ſucceſs. The rabbits, &c. which ſhe caught in thoſe ſnares, not only furniſhed her with a comfortable ſubſiſtence, but of the ſkins ſhe made a ſuit of neat and warm clothing for the winter. It is ſcarcely poſſible to conceive that a perſon in her forlorn ſituation ſhould be ſo compoſed as to be capable of contriving or executing any thing that was not abſolutely neceſſary to her exiſtence; but there were ſufficient proofs that ſhe had extended her views much farther, as all her clothing, beſides being calculated for real ſervice, ſhowed great taſte, and exhibited no little variety of ornament. The materials, though rude, were very curiouſly wrought, and ſo judiciouſly placed as to make the whole of her garb have a very pleaſing though rather romantic appearance.

Her leiſure hours from hunting had been employed in twiſting the inner-rind or bark of willows into ſmall lines like net-twine, of which ſhe had ſome hundred fathoms by her; with this ſhe intended to make a fiſhing-net as ſoon as the ſpring advanced. It is of the inner bark of willows, twiſted in this manner, that the Dog-ribbed Indians make their fiſhing-nets; and they are much preferable to thoſe made by the Northern Indians.

Five or ſix inches of an iron hoop, made into a knife, and the ſhank of an arrow-head of iron, which ſerved her as an awl, were all the metals this poor woman had with her when ſhe eloped; and with theſe implements ſhe had made herſelf complete ſnow-ſhoes, and ſeveral other uſeful articles.

Her method of making a fire was equally ſingular and curious, having no other materials for that purpoſe than two hard ſulphureous ſtones. Theſe, by long friction and hard knocking, produced a few ſparks, which at length communicated to ſome touchwood; but as this method was attended with great trouble, and not always with ſucceſs, ſhe did not ſuffer her fire to go out all the winter. Hence we may conclude, that ſhe had no idea of producing fire by friction, in the manner practiſed by the Eſquimaux, and many other unciviliſed nations; becauſe, if ſhe had, the above-mentioned precaution would have been unneceſſary.

The ſingularity of the circumſtance, the

the comelineſs of her perſon, and her approved accompliſhments, occaſioned a ſtrong conteſt between ſeveral of the Indians of my party, who ſhould have her for a wife; and the poor girl was actually won and loſt at wreſtling by near half a ſcore different men the ſame evening. My guide, Matonabbee, who at that time had no leſs than ſeven wives, all women grown, beſides a young girl of eleven or twelve years old, would have put in for the prize alſo, had not one of his wives made him aſhamed of it, by telling him that he had already more wives than he could properly attend. This piece of ſatire, however true, proved fatal to the poor girl who dared to make ſo open a declaration; for the great man, Matonabbee, who would willingly have been thought equal to eight or ten men in every reſpect, took it as ſuch an affront, that he fell on her with both hands and feet, and bruiſed her to ſuch a degree, that after lingering ſome time, ſhe died.

When the Athapuſcow Indians took the above Dog-ribbed Indian woman priſoner, they, according to the univerſal cuſtom of thoſe ſavages, ſurpriſed her and her party in the night, and killed every ſoul in the tent, except herſelf and three other young women. Among thoſe whom they killed, were her father, mother, and huſband. Her young child, four or five months old, ſhe concealed in a bundle of clothing, and took with her undiſcovered in the night; but when ſhe arrived at the place where the Athapuſcow Indians had left their wives (which was not far diſtant), they began to examine her bundle, and finding the child, one of the women took it from her, and killed it on the ſpot.

This laſt piece of barbarity gave her ſuch a diſguſt to thoſe Indians, that, notwithſtanding the man who took care of her treated her in every reſpect as his wife, and was, ſhe ſaid, remarkably kind to, and even fond of her, ſo far was ſhe from being able to reconcile herſelf to any of the tribe, that ſhe rather choſe to expoſe herſelf to miſery and want, than live in eaſe and affluence among perſons who had ſo cruelly murdered her infant. The poor woman's relation of this ſhocking ſtory, which ſhe delivered in a very affecting manner, only excited laughter among the ſavages of my party.

Hearne's Journey.

ACCOUNT OF SOME FUNERAL RITES PERFOMED BY THE AFRICAN SLAVES.

I WAS aſtoniſhed one afternoon to obſerve numerous parties of Indians about the different graves; but ſoon learnt that thoſe perſons were exerciſing certain rites over the tombs of their deceaſed relations; a cuſtom which at ſtated periods they all religiouſly obſerve.

The ceremony was truly ſingular, and afforded me the greateſt ſatisfaction.—It diſcovered, I muſt own, as great a degree of ſuperſtition as ever exiſted, but at the ſame time evinced ſuch lively marks of grateful affection, as cannot be obſerved without inſpiring a tender ſympathy; it formed a ſight, which, though conſidered in the abſtract, it may be thought moſt groſsly ludicrous, was ſtill a ſpectacle highly ſentimental, and delicately pleaſing.

It is not in great events alone, that nature viſits our affections. The ſimple, artleſs, tender, little girl, who weeps the loſs of her departed ſparrow, holds as ſtrong a clue to ſenſibility—as the imperious monarch who mourns his loſt dominion in a priſon, with all the royal dignity of grief. One is a pure ſtroke of nature, the other is daſhed with pride.

Amidſt the numerous parties by which I was ſurrounded, I at length diſcovered one, that, from the ſingularity, particularly arreſted my attention; this group conſiſted of three men, and one woman.—I approached them with an air of reſpect and diffidence inſpired by my feelings; I thought my preſence might interrupt their rites, and was determined to have retired, if my curioſity ap-

appeared to be intruſive; however, their attention was too much engroſſed to obſerve me, and I found myſelf, as it were, an inviſible ſpectator of their actions, a circumſtance which greatly favoured my wiſhes.

The men were of a middle age, and fine athletic figures, but the woman had an appearance ſo ſingular, that I can compare her to nothing but the ſtriking picture of Famine, given us by Ovid, in his Metamorphoſes. If you add to this, the infirmities of extreme old age, and a ſkin of a jet black, except where ſpotted with the leproſy, you may conceive an idea of this wretched creature, whoſe ſufferings appeared to reproach exiſtence; yet, however incredible it may appear, ſhe continued for half an hour hobbling a ſavage dance around the grave of her relation, as did the men, who followed her, ſinging at the ſame time a ſong in the African language, which was addreſſed to the deceaſed: it had a general chorus, and, as far as I could judge, was only a conſtant repetition of a few ſhort ſentences: the ſounds, however, appeared highly expreſſive of regret, and it was ſung with fervour and emotion.

During all this time, a fifth perſon (whom I had not obſerved at firſt,) ſtood upon the grave, and employed his feet in a ſtep ſomewhat ſimilar to the ſhuffle in a Scotch hornpipe, only done much ſlower. He was a man of a very ſlight make and low ſtature, his ſkin of the deepeſt black, but his hair and beard were of grizly ſilver; he appeared to hold the office of a prieſt, and evidently conducted the preſent ceremony, which he finally cloſed ſoon after, by pouring a libation of new rum upon the grave; this being done, the mould which had been kicked off, was replaced by a kind of ſhovel, and they all retired.

I viſited ſeveral other parties before I had an opportunity of ſatisfying my curioſity, when obſerving an uncommon croud of negroes at a more remote part of the burying ground, I immediately joined them. At the foot of this grave ſtood a black woman, about forty years of age, of a countenance ſingularly expreſſive; in one hand ſhe held a ſmall crutch ſtick, while ſhe employed the other as a miniſter, that enforced much graceful geſture through a ſpeech of ſtrong and ready elocution; for to my great delight ſhe was haranguing in beautiful, though broken Engliſh; ſhe had but juſt commenced her oration; ſhe moralized ſome time upon the ſubject of death: there was an inexpreſſible beauty in her manner of delivery, a ſtriking propriety in her choice of words, a delicacy in her ſentiments! ſhe was all truth, clearneſs, and ſimplicity.

Who is it, that declares an orator muſt feel himſelf, before he can command the feelings of his audience?

Nothing is more correct than the remark; this woman was a lively inſtance of its truth.

Electrified from the conductor of her feelings, the ſympathetic heart ſhook with the fineſt throbs of ſenſibility. Nature, 'tis thou alone that governeſt the fine movements of the ſoul! touched by thy gentle hand, the heart-ſtrings tremble! 'tis thou alone canſt make a true chord with the paſſions!

Inſidious art, by throwing in our eyes the ſubtile pulvil of hypocriſy, may ſometimes drench the cheek with a mechanic flood; but ſuperficial is the tear, it rolleth not with energy; while the ſpontaneous ſprings of real grief pour their warm torrents down the heaving breaſt, and, being re abſorbed into the heart, create thoſe pleaſing pains, thoſe incommunicable joys, which ſighs attempt to ſpeak, when ſpeech is loſt.

I thought it ſtrange, that a woman whoſe diſcourſe evinced ſo much good ſenſe ſhould nevertheleſs confine it to the narrow ſphere of ſuperſtition; but the cuſtoms of nations and the prejudices of education are not eaſily ſubdued.

Out upon theſe prejudices! I feel

ſome relics of them at this hour; they creep along my bones, inſinuate themſelves into my very marrow, and, for aught I know, will remain there till the worms diſlodge them.

The negro addreſſed every ſyllable of her converſation to the duſt of her departed huſband, and ſometimes ſeemed as if ſhe pauſed for anſwers; ſhe had provided, for a perſon in her circumſtances, a moſt ſumptuous dinner; ſhe brought it with her to her huſband's grave!

The memorable Spaniſh Gala, when placed in the fair order of proportion, was not ſuperior to this negro's entertainment; it was like the "widow's mite," a valuable treaſure! this generous woman had procured ſuch dainties for the melancholy celebration of her huſband's death, as ſhe could not afford at any time to purchaſe for herſelf; grateful offering of an exalted ſoul! tender tribute of refined affection!—to weep in uniſon with ſuch a gentle being was a luxury indeed; this was a ſympathy worth being ſhared, nor ſhall my boſom ever forget to cheriſh the ſacred memory of ſuch a privilege.

There was not an article in this plentiful feaſt, which the woman and her attendants did not carefully diſtribute upon the grave; a plate of boiled rice being then preſented to her, ſhe took a handful, and threw it up into the air; a portion of it fell upon my hat: the woman obſerved it, and would have wiped it off: I took it from my head, with a reſpectful bow, and offered her an apology for having cauſed an interruption to her ceremonies; ſhe continued them. I have heard the beſt orations of our Britiſh Ciceros! yes, but I have alſo heard an uninſtructed Negroe! a ſlave! whoſe powers of rhetoric are far above the reach of my compariſon.

It would have ſhamed our orators, had they been preſent at the declamation of this unlettered woman.

She now inveighed againſt the malice of a neighbour, who had wantonly aſperſed her character, and tried to undermine her reputation; ſhe pointed out the cruelty of ſuch ungenerous calumnies, and made ſome animated ſtrictures upon the conduct of thoſe who, from motives either of envy or natural malevolence, indulge a vile propenſity to defamation.

She called Heaven to witneſs with what unbounded tenderneſs ſhe filled the duties of a mother; with what ſcrupulous integrity ſhe carried on her buſineſs; and with what friendly decorum ſhe even treated all her friends and neighbours.

It is true, ſhe ſpoke entirely in the firſt perſon; but here egotiſm was perfectly excuſable; this harangue was meant as a ſolemn refutation of thoſe calumies with which ſhe had been innocently branded.

I could not for a moment doubt the truth of her aſſertions; there is an ingenious and fervid ſtyle that marks the conſcious dignity of innocence, widely diſtinguiſhed from the mean equivocations of confounded guilt. I would have pledged my life for her veracity.

It is a known fact, that upon theſe occaſions they even prefer death to falſehood; this ſeems to be their grand point of honour. Not many months before my arrival here, a murder was committed by three negroes on the body of a gentleman much eſteemed by all the iſlands.

The manner in which the criminals were diſcovered was as follows:—Thoſe who were ſuſpected were taken into this burying ground to ſwear their innocence upon the graves of their relations, when, as it was expected, the murderers all three confeſſed their guilt.

The perſons from whom I had this information obſerved, that a few inſtances of perjury had occurred; but that the criminals all uniformly either ſtarved or poiſoned themſelves ſoon after, being unable to ſupport the weight of infamy attached to ſuch a breach of ſolemn cuſtoms.

I was ſurpriſed to hear this woman diſ-

diſcourſe with her huſband's ſpirit upon many paſt tranſactions. She related ſeveral family anecdotes, and, what gave me infinite pleaſure, obſerved of ſome white man, that he was full of charity and feeling! he was always gentle, generous, and friendly! "but he is gone now, poor Oliver, he is gone!" ſaid ſhe, "he's gone! he's gone!"—I am not equal to her words.

Hadſt thou been preſent, Yorick, at this ſcene, thou wouldſt have done ſome juſtice to the merits of a ſlave.

Warm from the lively touches of thy matchleſs pencil, we ſhould have had a faithful picture of her ſenſibility; yes, thou wouldſt have built a temple to her memory, as glorious and immortal as the ſhrine that conſecrates the duſt of thy Le Fevre!

The woman having finiſhed her oration, I was going to retire, when ſhe, perceiving it, came forward and preſented me with ſome cake; ſhe preſſed me much to have ſome wine, which I declined; however, to make her amends I took a tumbler of ſorrel-water, which is a moſt cool and agreeable beverage of a fine ſcarlet colour, and very much uſed in thoſe warm climates. The woman now went away, and I was infinitely ſhocked at the manner in which this ſolemn ceremony cloſed; it ended in a general ſcramble of the ſpectators, who ſoon, ſeizing on the *dead man's dinner*, devoured it on his grave, without ſo much as waiting to ſay grace.

From *Letters on the Manners and Cuſtoms of Foreign Nations.*

OBSERVATIONS ON EDUCATION, AND THE BEHAVIOUR OF YOUTH.

IT is deſirable that a child ſhould partake of both characters, the child and the man. The hilarity of youth is too valuable a benefit, for any reaſonable man to wiſh to ſee it driven out of the world. Nor is it merely valuable for the immediate pleaſure that attends it; it is alſo highly conducive to health, to the beſt and moſt deſirable ſtate both of body and mind. Much of it would be cultivated by adults, which is now neglected; and would be even preſerved to old age; were it not for falſe ideas of decorum, a ſpecies of hypocriſy, a ſuperſubtle attention to the ſuppoſed minutiæ of character, that lead us to check our ſpontaneous efforts, and to draw a veil of gravity over the innocent, as well as the immoderate, luxuriance and wantonneſs of our thoughts.

But, if hilarity be a valuable thing, good ſenſe is perhaps ſtill better. A compariſon has ſometimes been inſtituted between ſerioufneſs and gaiety, and an inquiry ſtarted as to which of the two is moſt excellent. Gaiety has undoubtedly a thouſand recommendations; it is not ſo properly the means of happineſs, as one of the different ſpecies of which happineſs conſiſts. No one would gain attention from a reaſonable man, who ſhould offer to advance a word againſt it. But gaiety muſt probably, in the compariſon, yield to ſerioufneſs. The world in which we are engaged, is, after all, a ſerious ſcene. No man can expect long to retain the means of happineſs, if he be not ſometimes ſeriouſly employed in contemplating and combining them. The man of mere gaiety paſſes away life like a dream, has nothing to recollect, and leaves behind no traces that he was. His ſtate is rather a ſtate of vegetation, each day like the day before, than a ſtate worthy of a rational being. All that is grand and ſublime, in conception or compoſition, in eloquence or in poetry, is ſerious. Nay, gaiety itſelf, if it be ſuch as a delicate taſte would approve, muſt have been indebted for its rearing and growth to ſerioufneſs. All that is ſublime in character, all that is generouſly virtuous, all that extorts our admiration and makes conqueſt of our moſt ardent affections, muſt have been accompanied both in its riſe and progreſs by ſerioufneſs. A character may be

valuable, a man may be contented and happy, without gaiety; but no being can be worthy the name of a man, if ſeriouſneſs be not an ingredient in his diſpoſition.

A young perſon ſhould be educated, as if he were one day to become a man. He ſhould not arrive at a certain age, and then all at once be launched upon the world. He ſhould not be either wholly ignorant of, or unexerciſed in, the concerns of men. The world is a momentous and a perilous ſcene. What wiſe parent would wiſh his child to enter it, without preparation, or without being initiated in the ſpectacle of its practices?

The man ſhould, by inceſſant degrees, be grafted upon the youth: the proceſs ſhould perhaps commence from the period of birth. There is no age at which ſomething manly, conſiderate, and firm, will not be found graceful. The true point of ſkill is, not to precipitate this important leſſon, but to carry it on with a ſuitable progreſs; to ſhow, to the judicious and well informed ſpectator, always ſomewhat to ſurpriſe, never any thing premature; or rather perhaps to ſhow him a youth, always ſuperior to his years, but yet with ſo graceful and eaſy a ſuperiority, as never to produce any ſenſations, but thoſe of delight.

For this purpoſe, it is not neceſſary that we ſhould check the ſallies of youth. Nothing is of worſe effect in our treatment either of the young or the old, than a continual anxiety, and an ever eager interference with their conduct. Every human being ſhould be permitted, not only from a principle of benevolence, not only from a principle of juſtice, but becauſe without this there can be no true improvement or excellence, to act from himſelf.

But it is more neceſſary that we ſhould tolerate the follies of youth, than that we ſhould foſter them. In our own conduct towards them, it is perhaps deſirable that we ſhould always talk to them the language of good ſenſe, and never the jargon of the nurſery; that we ſhould be ſuperior to the folly of adopting and repeating their little blunders; that we ſhould pronounce our words with accuracy and propriety, and not echo their imperfect attempts at pronunciation. In thus conducting ourſelves, there is no need of any thing formal or monotonous. We may be gay; we may be affectionate; our countenance may be dreſſed in ſmiles; we may ſtoop to their capacities; we may adapt ourſelves to the quickneſs and mutability of their tempers. We may do all this; we may win the kindneſs of their hearts; at the ſame time that we are lifting them up to our level, not ſinking ourſelves to theirs.

The whole of this branch of education undoubtedly requires the delicate preſerving of a certain medium. We ſhould reaſon with children, but not to ſuch a degree as to render them parrots or ſophiſts. We ſhould treat them as poſſeſſing a certain importance, but not ſo as to render them fops and coxcombs. We ſhould repoſe in them a certain confidence, and to a certain extent demand their aſſiſtance and advice, but not ſo as to convey a falſhood to their minds, or make them conceive they have accompliſhments which they have not.

In early youth there muſt perhaps be ſome ſubjection of the pupil to the mere will of his ſuperior: But even then the friend need not be altogether loſt in the parent. At a certain age the parental character ſhould perhaps be wholly loſt. There is no ſpectacle that more forcibly extorts the approbation of the human mind, than that of a father and child, already arrived at years of diſcretion, who live together like brethren. There is no more unequivocal exhibition of imbecility, than the behaviour of a parent who, in his ſon now become a citizen at large, cannot forget the child; and who exerciſes, or attempts to exerciſe, an unſeemly authority over him. The ſtate of equality, which is the conſummation of a

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juſt education, ſhould for ever be borne in mind. We ſhould always treat our children with ſome deference, and make them in ſome degree the confidents of our affairs and our purpoſes. We ſhould extract from them ſome of the benefits of friendſhip, that they may one day be capable of becoming friends in the utmoſt extent of the term. We ſhould reſpect them, that they may reſpect themſelves. We ſhould behold their proceedings with the eyes of men towards men, that they may learn to feel their portion of importance, and regard their actions as the actions of moral and intelligent beings.

There is perhaps nothing that has a greater tendency to decide favourably or unfavourably reſpecting a man's future intellect, than the queſtion whether or not he be impreſſed with an early taſte for reading.

Books are the depoſitary of every thing that is moſt honourable to man. Literature, taken in all its bearings, forms the grand line of demarcation between the human and the animal kingdoms. He that loves reading has every thing within his reach. He has but to deſire; and he may poſſeſs himſelf of every ſpecies of wiſdom to judge, and power to perform.

The chief point of difference between the man of talent and the man without, conſiſts in the different ways in which their minds are employed during the ſame interval. They are obliged, let us ſuppoſe, to walk from Temple-Bar to Hyde-Park Corner. The dull man goes ſtraight forward; he has ſo many furlongs to traverſe. He obſerves if he meets any of his acquaintance; he inquires reſpecting their health and their family. He glances perhaps the ſhops as he paſſes; he admires the faſhion of a buckle, and the metal of a tea-urn. If he experience any flights of fancy, they are of a ſhort extent; of the ſame nature as the flights of a foreſt-bird, clipped of his wings, and condemned to paſs the reſt of his life in a farm-yard. On the other hand, the man of talent gives full ſcope to his imagination. He laughs and cries. Uninduced to the ſuggeſtions of ſurrounding objects, his whole ſoul is employed. He enters into nice calculations; he digeſts ſagacious reaſonings. In imagination he declaims or deſcribes, impreſſed with the deepeſt ſympathy, or elevated to the loftieſt rapture; he makes a thouſand new and admirable combinations: He paſſes through a thouſand imaginary ſcenes, tries his courage, taſks his ingenuity, and thus becomes gradually prepared to meet almoſt any of the many-coloured events of human life. He conſults, by the aid of memory, the books he has read, and projects others for the future inſtruction and delight of mankind. If he obſerve the paſſengers, he reads their countenances, conjectures their paſt hiſtory, and forms a ſuperficial notion of their wiſdom or folly, their virtue or vice, their ſatisfaction or miſery. If he obſerve the ſcenes that occur, it is with the eye of a connoiſſeur or an artiſt. Every object is capable of ſuggeſting to him a volume of reflections. The time of theſe two perſons in one reſpect reſembles; it has brought them both to Hyde-Park-Corner. In almoſt every other reſpect it is diſſimilar.

What is it that tends to generate theſe very oppoſite habits of mind?

Probably nothing has contributed more than an early taſte for reading. Books gratify and excite our curioſity in innumerable ways. They force us to reflect. They hurry us from point to point. They preſent direct ideas of various kinds, and they ſuggeſt indirect ones. In a well-written book we are preſented with the matureſt reflections, or the happieſt flights, of a mind of uncommon excellence. It is impoſſible that we can be much accuſtomed to ſuch companions, without attaining ſome reſemblance of them. When I read Thomſon, I become Thomſon; when I read Milton, I become Milton. I find myſelf a ſort of intellectual camelion, aſſuming the colour of the ſubſtan-

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ces on which I reſt. He that revels in a well-choſen library, has innumerable diſhes, and all of admirable flavour. His taſte is rendered ſo acute, as eaſily to diſtinguiſh the niceſt ſhades of difference. His mind becomes ductile, ſuſceptible to every impreſſion, and gaining new refinement from them all. His varieties of thinking baffle calculation, and his powers, whether of reaſon or fancy, become eminently vigorous.

Much ſeems to depend, in this caſe, upon the period at which the taſte for reading has commenced. If it be late, the mind ſeems frequently to have acquired a previous obſtinacy and untractableneſs. The late reader makes a ſuperficial acquaintance with his author, but is never admitted into the familiarity of a friend. Stiffneſs and formality are always viſible between them. He does not become the creature of his author; neither bends with all his caprices, nor ſympathiſes with all his ſenſations. This mode of reading, upon which we depend for the conſummation of our improvement, can ſcarcely be acquired, unleſs we begin to read with pleaſure at a period too early for memory to record, liſp the numbers of the poet, and in our unpractiſed imagination adhere to the letter of the moraliſing alleguriſt. In that caſe we ſhall ſoon be induced ourſelves to "build" the unpoliſhed "rhyme*," and ſhall act over, in fond imitation, the ſcenes we have reviewed.

An early taſte for reading, though a moſt promiſing indication, muſt not be excluſively depended on. It muſt be aided by favourable circumſtances, or the early reader may degenerate into an unproductive pedant, or a literary idler. It ſeemed to appear in a preceding eſſay, that genius, when ripened to the birth, may yet be extinguiſhed. Much more may the materials of genius ſuffer an untimely blight, and terminate in an abortion. But what is moſt to be feared is, that ſome adverſe gale ſhould hurry the adventurer a thouſand miles athwart into the chaos of laborious ſlavery, removing him from the genial influence of a tranquil leiſure, or tranſporting him to a dreary climate, where the half-formed bloſſoms of hope ſhall be irremediably deſtroyed *. That the mind may expatiate in its true element, it is neceſſary that it ſhould become neither the victim of labour, nor the ſlave of terror, diſcouragement, and diſguſt. This is the true danger; as to pedantry, it may be queſtioned whether it is the offspring of early reading, or not rather of a taſte for reading taken up at a late and inauſpicious period.

Extracted from Goodwin's Enquirer, juſt publiſhed.

* Milton.

* The canker galls the infants of the ſpring,
Too oft before their buttons be diſclos'd;
And in the morn and liquid dew of youth
Contagious blaſtments are moſt imminent.
Shakeſpear.

ON VULGAR PREJUDICES.

(CONCLUDED FROM PAGE 184.)

THERE are no ſentiments of the mind more adapted to capricious aſſociation, than thoſe of devotion. The tendency of man to religion is ſo ſtrong, that any obſervance or rite, any belief or opinion, is received as ſacred, under its ſanction. The ſtronger the religious paſſion is, the more bigotted are we to the errors which are nurtured under its pale. The mind is completely ſhut up againſt all conviction of miſtake; the more myſterious and unaccountable the opinion is, it is conſidered as the more exalted and divine. We need not be at any loſs to find illuſtrations of theſe obſervations in attending to any part of the Romiſh ſuperſtition. The only rational light in which arbitrary rites can be viewed, is, that they are means or occaſions by which ſentiments of devotion are excited; or perhaps they ſerve the ſame pur-

purpoſe with artificial language, of becoming the ſigns of the devotion they are uſed to expreſs. In their own nature they are indifferent; they claim reſpect by being uſeful for a further end; and by being a ſtrong proof of the ſincerity and vehemence of the devotion of the worſhipper. But the rite has no ſooner been conjoined with the exerciſe of religious ſentiment, than it is looked upon with the ſame veneration as the object of our worſhip. It becomes, in ſhort, a divinity, and is clothed, in the conception of the devotee, with the powers of Deity. Thus the ſacrifice which is at firſt offered as an expreſſion of gratitude, is, in proceſs of time, conſulted as the prophet of future events; or, as an inſtance more unequivocal, the tomb of the ſaint, which is perhaps properly frequented as the fitteſt ſcene for elevating devotion, becomes, in time, the object of divine reverence; nay, the very Deity, or rather the nameleſs cauſe, which works miracles, and lays open the dark receſſes of futurity.

A like ſuperſtitious reverence (pitiable is the weakneſs of human nature!) attends every good man in the exerciſe of rational and elevated devotion, particularly towards the houſe or the grove where he pays his vows, to the ſeaſon, or the dreſs which he conceives moſt ſuitable to the frame of his ſpirit. The principle of aſſociation is powerful in drawing within the ſphere of its attraction, every object however trifling; and the powers of diſcrimination are lulled aſleep by the emotions of religion.

The ſame aſſociating principle is known to ſanctify every opinion, as well as every uſage or rite. When the mind is engroſſed with that ſolemn awe, that devoted reſpect which the preſence of Deity inſpires, it cannot think too highly of him, or too meanly of itſelf, and all its own powers and qualifications. Every idea then preſented to it, as religious, it embraces with due veneration, provided it tends to exalt the Divinity, or to abaſe the worſhipper. No queſtion is allowed to be made, reſpecting the truth or merit of the ſentiment. Such heſitation of mind is reckoned impious, and detracting from the merit of the Deity, who deſerves every ſacrifice of the underſtanding, that it may exalt his glory. It need not be inquired here, whether the opinion is really believed, when no evidence has been brought to ſupport it. The tendency or uſe of the idea ſerves for rational evidence of its truth, and the impulſe of religious feeling ſerves to enforce it on the mind.

Let us next remark arbitrary aſſociations on a different head, whoſe influence in common life will not be doubted; reſpecting the eſtimation of qualities and purſuits which are conceived to beſtow dignity on the human character. The ſenſe of honour or eſteem is the great ſpring of human purſuit. Wherever we conceive diſtinction and importance to be placed, there the affections and ardent efforts of the mind are pointed. No inferior conſideration of intereſt, or trouble, are in the leaſt regarded in the purſuit of ambition; and in the acquiſition of this object, to which the view is directed, our happineſs is conceived to conſiſt. But, however lamentable the matter is, it is certain that this good, this ground of eſtimation, or point of honour, may be placed on any object, without the leaſt regard paid to its real value. And whenever we conceive our dignity or rank to be joined with a certain object or courſe of action, the ſentiment will never be rooted out: As was the caſe in religion, ſo is it here; if we indulge a doubt of the merit of the object to ſuch regard, we incur a ſenſe of the violation of honour. That aſſociation often connects the higheſt reſpect and admiration to inſignificant objects, is a truth which daily experience confirms. On what ground do we admire the faſhions of high rank, its badges of honour, its equipage and dreſs? Is it not from an arbitrary aſſociation, with the perſonal character of thoſe who wear them? Thoſe who, in the infancy of ſociety, diſ-

diſtinguiſhed themſelves among their contemporaries by great perſonal virtues, were very properly adorned with a badge which marked them out from the vulgar; they were alſo entitled to a fortune proportioned to their ſuperior merits: But how ſoon theſe mere ſigns of greatneſs are believed to conſtitute nobility itſelf? They are eyed by the vulgar, as the very pinnacle of eminence: the real qualities of elevation are overlooked; and whoever be the man who is ſurrounded with the trappings of dignity; to his *ſtar*, his *garter*, or *crown*, will the ſentiments of admiration and reſpect be given. If rank and diſtinction is founded on external fortune, the fatal conſequence is, that our ideas of merit and demerit, beauty and deformity, are in a great meaſure perverted. That which ought to demand our admiration the moſt, is kept in the back ground, while thoſe poſſeſſions which ought to be regarded as conveniences, or mere nothings, occupy the moſt conſpicuous place in the picture. To this alſo we may trace a great proportion of the vices and miſery of life. The admiration which is excited in the vulgar, for what, in the nature of things, is neceſſarily debarred them, is the ſource of all their diſcontent and dejection. While the great indulge, on the one hand, an unwarrantable pride and contempt on the ſcore of their better poſſeſſions; the poor, on the other, rankle their ſpirit with envy, and jealouſy, and murmuring. All the while, however, the great conſtituents of elevation, and of merit, in the perſonal character, are entirely overlooked.

The *ſecond* ſource of prejudice is a diſpoſition to view things in that light which is moſt congenial to the temper of our own minds. The influence of paſſion, on the operations of the underſtanding, is too great to eſcape the notice of any one. The common way in which it perverts the judgment, is by confining the attention to ſuch circumſtances of the caſe as favour the bent of the mind. The youth juſt emancipated from the walls of his ſchool, and looking forward to the ſcenes of public life in which he is to mingle, to the fortunes and eſtabliſhments he is to make, and elated with high expectations of future happineſs, ſhuts his ear againſt the lectures on the anxieties, and hardſhips, and diſappointments, which the aged and experienced is conſtantly inculcating upon him. The tempers and prevailing diſpoſition of our minds have ſimilar effects. When a man's ſpirits are raiſed to a high degree of joy, he looks around on every object in the light of complacency and benevolence. No matter how gloomy the ſubject is in itſelf, his mind poſſeſſes a wonderful facility in extracting from it whatever is agreeable to its particular tone. He extracts good out of ſeeming evil: His mind is totally ſhut up againſt all ideas of ſorrow or wretchedneſs: Every man is loved, every place is a paradiſe; it is heaven upon earth.

On the other hand, look at the man under the influence of ſuperſtitious fear; a ſtate the moſt melancholy to which human nature is ever reduced; he dreads the preſence of his cruel and vengeful Deity in every object he ſees: every moment he apprehends ſome demon will appear to ſummon him to deſtruction. He deems it impious to indulge a happy or chearful thought. The charnel houſe or church-yard, where

Rous'd up from their ſlumbers, in grim array
The griſly ſpectres riſe, grin horrible—

are the ſcenes he delights to haunt. They alone are congenial to his horrid heart. Penances and ſtripes, and human ſacrifices, are the homage adequate to the object of his devotion.

Nothing better illuſtrates the influence that temper has on the judgment than the ſtory related by Lord Kaimes of a lady and lover who were viewing the moon through a teleſcope; while the romanting ſpirit of the one diſcovered in the ſhadows on the ſurface, a pair of tender enamoured lovers, the tithe-eat prieſt, whoſe thoughts naturally ran on

on churches and benefices, as positively denied the assertion, and declared the image to be two steeples of a cathedral. We observe the influence of the prevailing dispositions of philosophers, giving a strong tincture to their systems. Epicurus is known to have been a man of a tender and sympathetic heart. The stern and inflexible spirit of Zeno produced a system as inflexible and proud.

The *last* source of prejudices which befets strongly the great body of mankind is, *prevailing opinion*. "A person, (says the Spectator,) may be talked into any opinion, or belief." Some things, of which the bulk of mankind are incapable of judging, are taken upon trust; others, however absurd they appear to the eye of reason, by being often repeated, and always conceived in a certain way, become habitual to the mind, and are confidently believed. The example of the world around, to which great deference is paid by most men, confirms their belief. From a dread of singularity, and a desire of being approved in every thing they say or do, all tend to a general conformity of opinion. In matters of honour, of government, and religion, in which all dissention is esteemed treason or impiety, the contagion of belief is always most forcible. In one view, this is fortunate, as it preserves union and mutual affection among the whole community. But, in another, it is a dreadful curse, to be bound by a kind of moral necessity, to receive whatever opinions are prevalent, even on the most important subjects.

On a review of what has been advanced on the subject of prejudices, it is impossible to withold a sentiment of regret, that notwithstanding our boasted powers of reason, we are in such unfavourable circumstances with respect to the principles of our belief. Perhaps, were we bound to inquire into the origin of all the notions in which we have been educated, the discovery of truth would not be so difficult. But the difficulty lies not in the discovery, but in being brought to doubt of the truth of our *opinions*. Before the age of reason, our memory is stored with a multitude of ideas which habit has rivetted on our understandings, before we are capable of judging of their foundation. And when we are fit to ascertain the truth, so violent is the shock which it gives to all our principles of belief, and so much do we dread the imputation of singularity, that we can never completely get rid of old opinions, and build on a new foundation. It is a duty, however, to which all reasonable men are bound, to review and correct our conceptions of good and evil, which are so liable to be associated with what no way belongs to them, to examine whether our principles are derived from imitation, or reason, and thus to unfetter the mind from the influence of Vulgar Prejudices.

ANTI-PREJUDICE.

FOR THE SCOTS MAGAZINE.

ON DRAMATIC POETRY.

SIR,

I BELIEVE many of the following remarks are either new, or put in a new light, and therefore I trust they will not be unacceptable to your readers. If you are of the same opinion, by giving them a place, you will much oblige

Edinburgh, 1st April 1797. Your constant reader M.

DRAMATIC POETRY is a species of composition, the object of which is to exhibit a direct imitation of the manners and actions of men. There is a wide distinction between it and every other kind of poetry. In this the poet never introduces himself, either for relating any of the incidents of the play, or for describing his characters, but presents his actors before us; by the dialogue which is carried on between them, and by the respective parts which they act,

act, we trace the progress of the plot. Besides, as the drama is suited to representation, and every thing is made to pass before our eyes, it is necessary that the imitation be natural, and that it should be conducted in a manner that is probable, or may be supposed to happen in real life. For this purpose every thing of the marvellous must be entirely excluded; no machinery, no hyperbolical descriptions, must here be introduced, every thing that is presented before the spectators must be a picture of real life; and our imagination, to which tragedy is in a great measure addressed, must not be shocked with what does not agree with this standard. As it is also an object of dramatic representation to affect the heart, it becomes still more necessary that it should be according to nature and truth; because neither passions nor affections will be excited with what does not carry an air of truth and probability along with it. It appears, then, essential that the representation be natural, and adapted to impress on the mind an idea of probability. I shall endeavour to show, how necessary it is that a play, in order to produce this effect, must be conducted with an adherence to the three unities of *action*, *time*, and *place*.

1. Of *action*. Whether a play should consist of the history of one interesting and important action, or of two or more actions independent of each other, is a question which must be determined by every man's own taste and feelings. From the constitution of the mind, the pleasure which is derived from following a train of facts which are intimately connected by strong bonds of relation, is infinitely greater than when a number of unconnected intrigues are carried on in the same play, among which our attention is distracted, and the mind cannot be interested in the success of any of them. In such cases, no passion can rise to any height, so that the principal end of tragedy will be entirely frustrated. Unity of *action*, then, must not be destroyed by introducing two or more plots in one play, which tend to produce different effects on the mind, and do not lead to the same conclusion. But the unity of *action* is likewise broken, when there are any incidents which do not contribute a part either to advance or retard the plot. In many plays there are scenes which have no connection with the principal action, but are introduced merely to diversify the subject. It is a double fault, if these scenes tend to produce feelings, or to excite passions, which counteract those which it is the main design of the play to call forth. Such unhappily is the defect of Addison's Cato; the love scenes, which are introduced into it, are very inconsistent with the high and patriotic sentiments which predominate in other parts of that play. But this unity is not by any means broken by under plots which have an intimate connection with the main action. These, on the contrary, greatly enhance the pleasure of the play; because, when properly conducted, they make it more interesting. When we take a view of all the parts that compose a play, the various incidents are connected together by the relation of cause and effect. But so intimate a relation of parts is not essential to a good play; for the catastrophe or unravelling of the plot may turn out different from what it was all along expected to be. In this case, perhaps, we receive as great pleasure as if it had turned out according to expectation; for we are often agreeably surprised, and look back to discover something we were not aware of, which had produced such an effect. The unity of *action*, however, is not destroyed by this. The plot has been formed and prosecuted, though in the end it has turned out unsuccessful.

If Shakespeare be produced as an instance of having a number of plays that have no unity of action, but from all which we receive very great pleasure in the representation, I reply, that that pleasure does not arise from our being interested in the plot, but from particular scenes, which are full of intrigue, and

and a great display of character; and these, perhaps, unconnected with the principal event. A number of his plays are in this situation, so that if we view them as made up of a number of detached scenes, we derive all the pleasure from them which they are fitted to give; but we are far from being so much interested in them, as in such plays which exhibit the history of regular and entire plots. Such is the necessity of the unity of action, or that a play should only consist in the history of one entire plot.

2. Of *Time* and *Place*. The test by which the unities of *time* and *place* are to be tried, is different from that of the unity of action. Unity of action is necessary for making a good play; the unities of time and place are necessary for making the representation natural.

A play acted, says Dr Johnson, has the same effect on the mind with a play read; and no account is taken by the auditor of a drama of time and place, more than by the reader of a narrative. If this were the footing on which representation is placed, we would certainly go to the theatre for no other end than to hear the recital of speeches, attended with elegant gestures and modulations of voice: there would be no need of adjusting the scenery, dresses, and decorations, to as near a resemblance as possible of reality. The effect would be equally produced by reading the play in a closet. Some effect in this way, indeed, may be produced, but how very far short does it fall of that perfect representation on the stage? By means of all those arts by which a temporary illusion or impression of reality is produced, I am soon wrought into the belief that Mrs Siddons is the distressed and suffering Belvidera; I sob and weep; I feel all the emotions of genuine sympathy, exactly the same as I would feel, were it a real scene of distress. It is according as the representation is more nearly a resemblance to reality, that such effects are produced.

Every one then, must at least think it desirable, and to be a thing of some consequence, that this resemblance should not be broken by a disregard to the unities of time and place; that is, that the action or fable should require no more time than what is employed in representing it, and that the scene of action should be uniformly the same with that of the representation. The advantages of this are many; the resemblance will approach so much nearer to reality; and the effect on the mind will, on this account, be so much the greater. The imagination will not be shocked with evident inconsistencies, nor will it be overstrained by adjusting itself to changes of places, and unnatural transitions of time. It becomes also necessary, in order that the unity of action may be preserved; because, from the association of ideas, we naturally connect with the idea of *one* action, a limited space and time. And when different places, and long durations of time are employed, we suppose that different actions are performed in them.

But the slightest attention to history convinces us, that few, perhaps no actions have ever occurred with their concomitant causes and incidents, which have been transacted on a single spot, and during the short space of time allowed to theatrical representations; and consequently the strict observance of the unities we have hitherto pleaded, must exclude every plot which is fruitful in interesting circumstances. Now, when we consider the nature of our drama, in which the representation is suspended for some time between the acts, the unities of place and time will still be observed in a natural and probable manner, though we call in the aid of the imagination to suppose some change of place, and a longer space of time to have elapsed in the interval between the acts than what has passed in reality: I say, the unities of place and time will, notwithstanding this, be still observed; because it is not the understanding and reasoning powers that are addressed in a play, it is the imagination and the

heart; and if they are not ſhocked with what is unnatural and improbable, the impreſſion will be complete. By this means, our ſtage is relieved from many abſurdities to which the ancients, from the conſtitution of their drama, were often reduced. But ſtill it muſt be obſerved, that the more ſtrictly the unities of time and place are adhered to, the more perfect will the imitation be: "Becauſe (as Lord Kaimes obſerves) the confining an event within ſo narrow bounds, contributes to the unity of action, and prevents that labour, however ſlight, which the mind muſt undergo, in imagining frequent changes of place, and many intervals of time."

But ſince ſome liberties may reaſonably be admitted, it does not follow, that no limits are to be put to ſuch allowances. There are bounds of probability which we cannot paſs, and if the fable is not confined within theſe, the unities will be broken. The moſt extravagant licences have been taken by ſome of the Engliſh poets, in whoſe plays weeks, months, and even years, muſt have paſſed during the action. Equal liberties have been taken with regard to the ſudden and great changes of place. Such cannot fail to ſtrike the mind with manifeſt improbabilities; the imagination can by no means put up with them; and conſequently the great object of the play will never be obtained.

As the repreſentation is carried on without any interruption during each act, it is eſſential that, in the courſe of theſe, the unities of time and place be ſtrictly obſerved; for if they are not, it has a very diſagreeable effect to ſee the ſcene ſhifted; or to be ſhocked with a palpable diſregard to the unity of time. It has the effect of breaking the unity of action; for when a new ſcene is preſented to view, and other characters introduced who are employed about a different buſineſs, the effects left on the minds of the ſpectators, in conſequence of what was preſented before, are now entirely worn off by what follows. From the very idea of an act, too, it is neceſſary that theſe unities be ſtrictly adhered to.

Theſe obſervations I deem ſufficient to convince you of the neceſſity of the unities of *action*, *time*, and *place*.

ON RAMSAY'S GENTLE SHEPHERD.

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 79.

LETTER THIRD.

SIR,

BEAUTIES (and theſe of no common kind) preſent themſelves on every page of the Gentle Shepherd. If there be a Scotchman who can read over even the firſt ſcene, without feeling the moſt tender emotions, theſe my ſpeculations are not addreſſed to him. Neither write I for that man who can behold with unconcern the various changes in human affairs; but for thoſe, and thoſe alone, who poſſeſs the finer feelings of the heart, and who, in whatever ſphere of life they may move, are the chief ornaments of human nature.

Of this laſt deſcription of perſons, I verily believe there is not one who can peruſe the following obſervation of Roger's, (which the reader will obſerve, he inſtances to his comrade as a proof of his deſperate ſituation) without being deeply affected with the ſufferings of the poor dumb animal, as well as with thoſe of his unfortunate maſter; for my own part, I never read this ſentence without pauſing for a moment to ſympathiſe in the fate of both. This beautiful portion of his complaint is thus introduced:

My Bawty is a cur I dearly like.

We cannot ſuppoſe that this circumſtance, in ſuch a limited community as theirs muſt have been, was unknown to his ſweet-heart; and if ſo, ſhe is rendered the more criminal, he the more wretched.

E'en while he fawn'd ſhe ſtrake the poor dumb tyke.

The

The concluſion is equally juſt:

Gif I had fill'd a nook within her breaſt,
She wad hae ſhawn mair kindneſs to my beaſt.

He goes on with his "tale of woe" in a very feeling, though leſs pathetic manner than in the above quotation: he ends it as one that deſpairs indeed.

Flocks, wander where ye like, I dinna care,
I'll break my reed, and never whiſtle mair.

Patie, who hath hitherto ridiculed his puny fears, nothing ſoftened by theſe multiplied proofs of his comrade's miſery, thus adviſes him in the very next ſentence:

E'en do ſae Roger, wha can help miſluck,
Sicheins ſae be ſae athrawn-gabbet chuck;
Yonder's a craig, ſince ye hae tint a' hope
Gae till't your ways, and tak the lover's loup *.

This counſel to ſome may appear cruel and inſenſible in Roger's lamentable ſituation, but in my humble opinion it is quite the reverſe. The Gentle Shepherd adviſes from his knowledge of human nature, while his more ruſtic neighbour complains from his ignorance of it, and in fact this was by far the beſt plan; for if Patie had condoled with him, inſtead of tantalizing him, it might have indeed ſoothed his afflictions for a moment, but would have been of no continuance, therefore he adviſes him, as we have ſeen, not only to end his reed, but *ſince he was without hope, to end himſelf.* Theſe words, as the ſpeaker foreſaw, rouſed Roger from that lethargic indifference which o'erwhelmed him before. To hear ſuch inhuman and unfeeling counſel from his deareſt friend, is too much for him to bear in ſilence; ſo he immediately replies, that he will not ſpill his own blood, becauſe, ſays he, death will come ſoon enough of his own accord.

This is the moment which the Gentle Shepherd looked for; this is the moment which he embraces to diſcloſe to him a beautiful, recent, and intereſting ſcene, in which he himſelf was the principal actor, and which tallies ſo exactly with his comrade's condition, that it does not fail to ſtrike even the thick ſkull of Roger with inſtant conviction; nay in the following ſentence we obſerve him with pleaſure not only convinced, but generouſly inclined, he proffers his counſellor a *bra new plaid*, which is accepted of, and the ſubſequent conduct here is no leſs [illegible]; for, when the Gentle Shepherd propoſes his flute as a recompenſe for the gift, Roger we ſee refuſes to [illegible]

Let us now turn our [illegible] a little to the *twa barefoot beauties*, who are no leſs deſerving of regard [illegible], with more ſound judgment than is uſually to be met with in one of her age and ſex, defends true love with a ſenſibility and zeal highly proper and commendable. Her opponent Jenny, on the other hand, brings in the moſt obvious and plauſible difficulties which the matrimonial life is ſubject to, thereby giving full ſcope to her companion's reaſoning, which is juſt and perſpicuous. The main queſtion is *marriage* or *celibacy*; and it is debated (a few words excepted) in a very chaſte and animated manner; this dialogue is no ways inferior to the preceding one; it poſſeſſes beauties peculiar to itſelf; one or two of theſe I ſhall not forego the pleaſure of inſerting here. What, for inſtance, can we imagine more beautiful than this ſimple queſtion which Peggy puts home to her couſin about the middle of the colloquy, her heart and eyes

* Patie here alludes to a cuſtom eſtabliſhed among ſome of the ancients, which the curious reader will find humouroufly deſcribed by the Spectator, in his third volume. I here beg leave to retract part of what I ſaid in my firſt letter, with regard to Patie *not having received a liberal education.* He, we are told by Symon, read the *beſt of books*, which is ſo far well; but what good end is ſerved by giving him Latin and Greek I cannot ſee. Methinks it is rather inconſiſtent with the ſimplicity of the paſtoral life in general, and particularly with the way in which he was brought up.

eyes overflowing with ſerious fondneſs,
Wow! Jenny can there greater pleaſure be,
Than ſee ſic wee tots toddlin at your knee,
Whan a' they ettle at——their greateſt wiſs
Is to be made of, an' obtain a kiſs.

Jenny's arguments are far from being deſpicable or untrue. They abound with circumſtances. She here cites moſtly all the arguments which militate againſt the marriage ſtate in paſtoral ſociety; and theſe and ſuch like inconveniences do often place matrimony in a very unfavourable point of view, in the minds of thoſe whoſe ideas are circumſcribed, whoſe eyes are ſo bedimmed by prejudice, that they only ſee clearly on one ſide; miſtaking theſe ſtumbling ſtones for fragments of the ruinated building, until ſome able aſſertor of true properties of this ancient and venerable edifice ariſes, who feeling intereſted in its welfare and continuance, remores this rubbiſh to a ſide, that the beautiful fabric may appear in its full effect; and truly an excellent fabric it is——reared not by the caprice of man, but at the ſpecial command of the unchangeable Diſpoſer of all things.

Peggy repels with a proper ſpirit the wanton attacks of the ſatiric Jenny. She finally levels with the ground the ill-conſtructed work of her hypocritical companion. Her arguments are eloquent and forcible; ſhe ſets forth the ſuperior advantages which mankind derive from the lawful union of the ſexes, when true love is the cauſe of that union; and ſhe nowhere places the difference between the ſingle life and the married in a more excellent point of view than in the concluding ſimile.——It is it which produces conviction in the mind of her couſin, and it is ſo happily adapted for the occaſion, that it is deſerving of a corner here.

See yon twa elms that grow up ſide by ſide,
Suppoſe them ſome years ſyne bridegroom and bride
Nearer and nearer ilka year they've preſt,
Till wide their ſpreading branches are increaſt,
And in their mixture now are fully bleſt.
This ſhields the other frae the caſtlen blaſt,
That in return defends it frae the waſt;
Sic as ſtand ſingle——(a ſtate fae lik'd by you)
Beneath ilk ſtorm frae every airth maun bow.

Jenny's character, I own, upon the whole, is leſs amiable than Peggy's, but more common. The former approaches nearer to what the fair ſex *are*, the latter to what they *ſhould be*; and how can we expect that they will be more ſingle hearted, ſo long as the male creation go on in the manner they have done. They are the ſole cauſe of this falling off; cuſtom has ſanctioned liberties to them which, ſtrictly ſpeaking, are not allowable, and which no man will take advantage of. They (the women) muſt be upon their guard continually, even againſt their own ſpecies. Theſe are often their worſt enemies, having more frequent opportunities, and being more inſidious,

The lambs ſhould tremble when the foxes preach.

The female ſex have the precedence in matters of love, and they are happily fitted by nature for this ſuperiority; the fair one has it in her power to favour or to reject the man who profeſſes love to her; and though her heart declares in his favour, is it not prudent and abſolutely neceſſary to try him for a ſeaſon, and ſee whether his affections are laſting, or whether his profeſſion was only the tranſient effects of an overheated imagination? It is ſometimes difficult, I own, even then to diſcriminate the difference; yet the diſcerning beauty will be able, for the moſt part, eaſily to determine between the fawning villain, and the honeſt man. I am, &c.

PHILO SCOTICUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE SCOTS MAGAZINE.

ON NATIONAL WEALTH, AND THE ORIGIN AND USE OF MONEY.

SIR,

IN the preſent ſtate of public alarm on account of the ſcarcity of ſpecie in the country, I beg to ſend an obſervation or two upon national wealth, which I ſhall cloſe with an extract from Dr Adam Smith. Theſe may ſerve as hints, to lead people's thoughts to a right judgment on the ſubject; and therefore I ſhould preſume, they will prove acceptable to moſt of your readers. A PRIVATE BANKER.

Glaſgow, 12th April 1797.

THE riches or wealth of a country conſiſts in the three following articles: *1ſt*, The ground; comprehending the improvements upon it by building, machinery, planting, and the ſtock of labouring-cattle. *2d*, The commodities that are uſeful or exchangeable, whether in the ſtate of raw materials, or fit for the market, to ſerve for food, raiment, articles of luxury, &c. *3d*, Gold and ſilver, coined and uncoined.—Let any perſon impartially conſider our ſituation with regard to each of theſe, and he will not think the country in a deſperate or bankrupt ſtate; and if he further take into the account the number and expertneſs of our manufacturers, the improved ſtate of our machinery for ſaving and expediting labour, with the rapid progreſs of agricultural knowledge, he will ſee good reaſons for thinking, that we are ſtill able to hold our ground; and, were peace reſtored, will be able to go to market with more advantage than any of our neighbours; and there is no doubt that they who bring their goods cheapeſt to market, will carry the buſineſs.

But it will be objected, that I have taken no notice of paper currency; and that this is not one of the articles of the wealth of a country. If paper-money can be made to ſerve all the purpoſes of real money, and can at all times readily command it, it muſt be of advantage to any country, even though it ſhould not be current any where elſe. Thus, ſuppoſe the gold and ſilver neceſſary for the circulation of a nation to be four millions, and that paper money may be ſubſtituted in the place of one half of that ſum; this would enable the nation to employ ſix millions in place of four, for promoting induſtry in all its branches of agriculture, manufactures, and trade. If ſo, the intereſt of two millions muſt be gained by the introduction of that paper-money, which would anſwer all the ends that gold and ſilver formerly did; but always upon the ſuppoſition, that the ſpecie remaining is a ſufficient fund at all times for the bank or bankers, to pay for any part of the paper money that may be demanded of them. I need only appeal for the truth of theſe obverſations to the good effects already produced, ſince the introduction of banks into this country.

Notwithſtanding what I have ſaid, ſtill it muſt be admitted, that paper credit is liable to abuſe. Paper money may increaſe beyond the due proportion it ought to bear to the ſpecie of a country; of conſequence it will be difficult to find gold and ſilver to give in payment for it. This is the evil that the country at preſent labours under; and the ſtill further increaſed, and I may ſay forced, circulation of paper money, no doubt increaſes the evil. But in the *firſt* place, the public are pretty well certified, that all our banking companies are eſtabliſhed upon good ſecurities and ſufficient capitals; and, from their number, it is not likely that any have iſſued paper beyond their capitals. In the *ſecond* place, as all ranks are ſo much intereſted in the matter, reſolutions have been entered into and publiſhed, by the freeholders, and conſiderable merchants, and others, from all parts of the country, expreſſive of their intentions to ſupport the banks eſtabliſhed in the capital and different trading towns of Scotland, by receiving and paying their

their notes, lodging cash, &c. as formerly they had done. And in the *last* place, the increased circulation and issuing of notes below the former sums, is only for a limited time; so that, ere long, when confidence is restored, gold and silver will come forth from their lurking places, and supply the place of small notes in both kingdoms. I shall now, Sir, finish as I proposed, by transcribing what Dr Adam Smith says, upon the origin and use of money.

"When the division of labour has been once thoroughly established, it is but a very small part of a man's wants which the produce of his own labour can supply. He supplies the far greater part of them by exchanging that surplus part of the produce of his own labour, which is over and above his own consumption, for such parts of the produce of other men's labour as he has occasion for. Every man thus lives by exchanging, or becomes in some measure a merchant, and the society itself grows to be what is properly a commercial society.

"But, when the division of labour first began to take place, this power of exchanging must frequently have been very much clogged and embarrassed in its operations. One man, we shall suppose, has more of a certain commodity than he himself has occasion for, while another has less. The former consequently would be glad to dispose of, and the latter to purchase, a part of this superfluity. But if this latter should chance to have nothing that the former stands in need of, no exchange can be made between them. The butcher has more meat in his shop than he himself can consume, and the brewer and the baker would each of them be willing to purchase a part of it. But they have nothing to offer in exchange, except the different productions of their respective trades, and the butcher is already provided with all the bread and beer which he has immediate occasion for. No exchange can, in this case, be made between them. He cannot be their merchant, nor they his customers; and they are all of them thus mutually less serviceable to one another. In order to avoid the inconveniency of such situations, every prudent man, in every period of society, after the first establishment of the division of labour, must naturally have endeavoured to manage his affairs in such a manner, as to have at all times by him, besides the peculiar produce of his own industry, a certain quantity of some one commodity or other, such as he imagined few people would be likely to refuse in exchange for the produce of their industry.

"Many different commodities, it is probable, were successively both thought of and employed for this purpose. In the rude ages of society, cattle are said to have been the common instrument of commerce; and, though they must have been a most inconvenient one, yet in old times we find things were frequently valued according to the number of cattle which had been given in exchange for them. The armour of Diomed, says Homer, cost only nine oxen; but that of Glaucus cost a hundred oxen. Salt is said to be the common instrument of commerce and exchanges in Abyssinia; a species of shells in some parts of the coast of India; dried cod at Newfoundland; tobacco in Virginia; sugar in some of our West India colonies; hides or dressed leather in some other countries; and there is at this day a village in Scotland, where it is not uncommon, I am told, for a workman to carry nails instead of money to the baker's shop or the ale-house.

"In all countries, however, men seem at last to have been determined, by irresistible reasons, to give the preference, for this employment, to metals above every other commodity. Metals can not only be kept with as little loss as any other commodity, scarce any thing being less perishable than they are, but they can likewise, without any loss, be divided into any number of parts, as by fusion those parts can easily be reunited again; a quality which no other equally durable

durable commodities poſſeſs, and which more than any other quality renders them fit to be the inſtruments of commerce and circulation. The man who wanted to buy ſalt, for example, and had nothing but cattle to give in exchange for it, muſt have been obliged to buy ſalt to the value of a whole ox, or a whole ſheep at a time. He could ſeldom buy leſs than this, becauſe what he was to give for it could ſeldom be divided without loſs; and if he had a mind to buy more, he muſt, for the ſame reaſons, have been obliged to buy ſalt to the value of a whole ox, or a whole ſheep at a time. He could ſeldom buy leſs than this, becauſe what he was to give for it could ſeldom be divided without loſs; and if he had a mind to buy more, he muſt, for the ſame reaſons, have been obliged to buy double or triple the quantity, the value, to wit, of two or three oxen, or of two or three ſheep. If, on the contrary, inſtead of ſheep or oxen, he had metals to give in exchange for it, he could eaſily proportion the quantity of the metal to the preciſe quantity of the commodity which he had immediate occaſion for.

Different metals have been made uſe of by different nations for this purpoſe. Iron was the common inſtrument of commerce among the ancient Spartans; copper among the ancient Romans; and gold and ſilver among all rich and commercial nations.

Thoſe metals ſeem originally to have been made uſe of for this purpoſe in rude bars, without any ſtamp or coinage. Thus we are told by Pliny, upon the authority of one Remeus an ancient author, that, till the time of Servius Tullius, the Romans had no coined money, but made uſe of unſtamped bars of copper to purchaſe whatever they had occaſion for. Theſe rude bars, therefore, performed at this time the function of money.

The uſe of metals in this rude ſtate was attended with two very conſiderable inconveniences; firſt, with the trouble of weighing them; and ſecondly, with the trouble of aſſaying them. In the precious metals, where a ſmall difference in the quantity makes a great difference in the value, even the buſineſs of weighing, with proper exactneſs, requires at leaſt very accurate weights and ſcales. The weighing of gold, in particular, is an operation of ſome nicety. In the coarſer metals, indeed, where a ſmall error would be of little conſequence, leſs accuracy would, no doubt, be neceſſary: Yet we ſhould find it exceſſively troubleſome, if every time a poor man had either occaſion to buy or ſell a farthing's worth of goods, he was obliged to weigh the farthing. The operation of aſſaying is ſtill more difficult, ſtill more tedious, and, unleſs a part of the metal is fairly melted in the crucible, with proper diſſolvents, any concluſion that can be drawn from it, is extremely uncertain. Before the inſtitution of coined money, however, unleſs they went through this tedious and difficult operation, people muſt always have been liable to the groſſeſt frauds and impoſitions, and, inſtead of a pound weight of pure ſilver, or pure copper, might receive, in exchange for their goods, an adulterated compoſition of the coarſeſt and cheapeſt materials, which had, however, in their outward appearance, been made to reſemble thoſe metals. To prevent ſuch abuſes, to facilitate exchanges, and thereby to encourage all ſorts of induſtry and commerce, it has been found neceſſary, in all countries that have made any conſiderable advances towards improvement, to affix a public ſtamp upon certain quantities of ſuch particular metals, as were in thoſe countries commonly made uſe of to purchaſe goods. Hence the origin of coined money, and of thoſe public offices called mints; inſtitutions exactly of the ſame nature with thoſe of the aulnagers and ſtampmaſters of woollen and linen cloth. All of them are equally meant to aſcertain, by means of a public ſtamp, the quantity and uniform goodneſs of thoſe different commodities when brought to market.

The firſt public ſtamps of this kind that were affixed to the current metals, ſeem in many caſes to have been intended to aſcertain, what it was both moſt difficult and moſt important to aſcertain, the goodneſs or fineneſs of the metal, and to have reſembled the ſterling mark which is at preſent affixed to plates and bars of ſilver, or the Spaniſh mark which is ſometimes affixed to ingots of gold, and which being ſtruck only upon one ſide of the piece, and not covering the whole ſurface, aſcertains the fineneſs, but not the weight of the metal. Abraham weighs to Ephron the four hundred ſhekels of ſilver which he had agreed to pay for the field of Machpelah. They are ſaid however to be the current money of the merchant, and yet are received by weight and not by tale, in the ſame manner as ingots of gold and bars of ſilver are at preſent. The revenues of the ancient Saxon kings of England are ſaid to have been paid, not in money but in kind, that is, in victuals and proviſions of all ſorts. William the Conqueror introduced the cuſtom of paying them in money. This money, however, was for a long time received at the exchequer, by weight, and not by tale.

The inconveniency and difficulty of weighing thoſe metals with exactneſs, gave occaſion to the inſtitution of coins, of which the ſtamp, covering entirely both ſides of the piece, and ſometimes the edges too, was ſuppoſed to aſcertain not only the fineneſs, but the weight of the metal. Such coins, therefore, were received by tale as at preſent, without the trouble of weighing.

The denominations of thoſe coins ſeem originally to have expreſſed the weight or quantity of metal contained in them. In the time of Servius Tullius, who firſt coined money at Rome, the Roman *as* or pondo contained a Roman pound of good copper. It was divided in the ſame manner as our Troyes pound, into twelve ounces, each of which contained a real ounce of good copper. The Engliſh pound ſterling, the time of Edward I. contained a pound, Tower weight, of ſilver, of a known fineneſs. The Tower pound ſeems to have been ſomething more than the Roman pound, and ſomething leſs than the Troyes pound: This laſt was not introduced into the mint of England till the 18th of Henry VIII. The French livre contained in the time of Charlemagne a pound, Troyes weight, of ſilver of a known fineneſs. The fair of Troyes in Champaign was at that time frequented by all the nations of Europe, and the weights and meaſures of ſo famous a market were generally known and eſteemed. The Scots money pound contained, from the time of Alexander I. to that of Robert Bruce, a pound of ſilver of the ſame weight and fineneſs with the Engliſh pound ſterling. Engliſh, French, and Scots pennies too, contained all of them originally a real pennyweight of ſilver, the twentieth part of an ounce, and the two hundred and fortieth part of a pound. The ſhilling, too, ſeems originally to have been the denomination of a weight. *When wheat is at twelve ſhillings the quarter*, ſays an ancient ſtatute of Henry III. *then waſtel bread of a farthing ſhall weigh eleven ſhillings and four pence.* The proportion, however, between the ſhilling, and either the penny on the one hand, or the pound on the other, ſeems not to have been ſo conſtant and uniform as that between the penny and the pound. During the firſt race of the kings of France, the French ſou or ſhilling appears, upon different occaſions, to have contained five, twelve, twenty, forty, and forty-eight pennies. Among the ancient Saxons a ſhilling appears at one time to have contained only five pennies; and it is not improbable that it may have been as variable among them as among their neighbours the ancient Franks. From the time of Charlemagne among the French, and from that of William the Conqueror among the Engliſh, the proportion between the pound, the ſhilling, and the penny, ſeems to have been uniformly

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the ſame as at preſent, though the value of each has been very different. For in every country of the world, I believe, the avarice and injuſtice of princes and ſovereign ſtates, abuſing the confidence of their ſubjects, have, by degrees, diminiſhed the real quantity of metal which had been originally contained in their coins. The Roman as, in the latter ages of the republic, was reduced to the twenty-fourth part of its original value, and, inſtead of weighing a pound, came to weigh only half an ounce. The Engliſh pound and penny contain at preſent about a third only; the Scots pound and penny about a thirty-ſixth; and the French pound and penny about a ſixty-ſixth part of their original value. By means of thoſe operations, the princes and ſovereign ſtates which performed them, were enabled, in appearance, to pay their debts, and to fulfil their engagements with a ſmaller quantity of ſilver than would otherwiſe have been requiſite. It was indeed in appearance only; for their creditors were really defrauded of a part of what was due to them. All other debtors in the ſtate were allowed the ſame privilege, and might pay, with the ſame nominal ſum of the new and debaſed coin, whatever they had borrowed in the old. Such operations, therefore, have always proved favourable to the debtor, and ruinous to the creditor, and have ſometimes produced a greater and more univerſal revolution in the fortunes of private perſons, than could have been occaſioned by a very great public calamity.

It is in this manner that money has become, in all civilized nations, the univerſal inſtrument of commerce, by the intervention of which, goods of all kinds are bought and ſold, or exchanged, for one another.

What are the rules which men naturally obſerve in exchanging them, either for money or for one another, I ſhall now proceed to examine. Theſe rules determine what may be called the relative or exchangeable value of goods.

The word *value*, it is to be obſerved, has two different meanings, and ſometimes expreſſes the utility of ſome particular object, and ſometimes the power of purchaſing other goods which the poſſeſſion of that object conveys. The one may be called, "value in uſe;" the other, "value in exchange." The things which have the greateſt value in uſe, have frequently little or no value in exchange; and, on the contrary, thoſe which have the greateſt value in exchange, have frequently little or no value in uſe. Nothing is more uſeful than water: but it will purchaſe ſcarce any thing; ſcarce any thing can be had in exchange for it. A diamond, on the contrary, has ſcarce any value in uſe; but a very great quantity of other goods may frequently be had in exchange for it.

CRAYON PAINTING.

THE following is the copy of a Manuſcript found among the papers of the late Francis Cotes, Eſq; the celebrated Crayon Painter.

CRAYON PICTURES are in their nature more delicate, and conſequently more liable to injury, than almoſt every other kind of painting: they are uſually executed upon a paper ground, paſted over the fineſt linen, and are often painted upon blue, but moſt commonly upon paper prepared with a ſize ground, rendered of a middle teint for the ſake of expedition, and ſometimes upon paper perfectly white. It muſt not be concluded that becauſe Crayon pictures are eaſily injured, that they cannot with care be preſerved a great length of time; nay, for many centuries; but it will always be neceſſary to keep them with attention, and above all things to take care that they are not left in damp rooms, or in moiſt places, for the paſte which is uſed in preparing the grounds will inevitably produce a mildew, and

blacks, and the darkeſt colours be covered with ſpots.

All the light teints of Engliſh Crayons are perfectly ſafe and durable; and pictures of this deſcription are to be ſeen that have been painted more than forty years, and which have been expoſed to the climates of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies; and are, notwithſtanding in no reſpect decayed. It muſt always be remembered, that as Crayon pictures are dry, and have of courſe a powdery ſurface, they never ſhould be left uncovered with a glaſs; becauſe whatever duſt ſettles upon them cannot be blown off or removed in any other manner. Crayon pictures, when finely painted, are ſuperlatively beautiful, and decorative in a very high degree in apartments that are not too large; for, having their ſurface dry, they partake in appearance of the effect of Freſco, and by candle light are luminous and beautiful beyond all other pictures.

The fineſt examples that are known in this branch of painting are the pictures by the Caval. Mengs in the gallery at Dreſden; the Seaſons and other beautiful paintings by Roſalba; and certain portraits of Lietard, which are diſperſed and to be found all over Europe, as he painted in almoſt every country; perhaps to theſe may be added a few of my late maſter's portraits; and finally, if it will not be deemed too much preſumption, my father's portrait and Mr Knapton's; her Majeſty with the Princeſs Royal ſleeping, Mrs Child Miſs Jones, Miſs Wilton, and a few other portraits by myſelf.

Whatever ſpots appear in the blacks and darkeſt colours are eaſily removed with care by the point of a penknife; and if any ſpots ſhould ariſe upon the light parts of the fleſh, or other places, they ſhould in like manner be ſcraped off and repainted in, a ſpot at a time, exactly correſponding with the ſurrounding teints, till all the decayed parts are reſtored, which has often been done with admirable effect.

ALICO AND MAILA; OR, THE INJURED AFRICANS.

ON one of the burning ſhores which gave birth to the ſable Africans, dwelt Alico, ſurnamed the Mighty, from his ſuperiority over his countrymen in every attainment of ſavage excellence: in the chace he would ſpring on his prey with the ſwiftneſs of the pouncing eagle on the leveret; and by the power of his arm had often laid the felon tyger at his feet; he would climb, with the agility of the rock-fox, the higheſt mountain or tree; and for dexterity in managing the bow and lance, Alico was unequalled. His dwelling was a rude cavern, formed by nature at the foot of a foreſt, where he was bleſſed with a partner to his ruſhy couch, named Maila, with an infant, the firſt pledge of their mutual love. Alico, thus enjoying the ſweets which ſpring from connubial harmony and freedom, never extended his deſires beyond the bounty of nature; he dreaded not the ravages of the tornado, or the prowling tenants of the woods; but acknowledged a Deity in the thunder of the Heavens, before whoſe voice he would proſtrate himſelf on the ground in a prayer of gratitude. But the unhappy hour arrived when the ſons of Europe, led on by the gale of traffic, firſt guided their bark to theſe hitherto ſecluded ſhores. It was not with a deſire to exchange the ſocial ſmiles of friendſhip, or to inſtruct the untutored race in the bleſſings of civilized nature, but to profit by their unnatural commerce in robbing the mother-country of her children, to ſever from each other's arms fond relatives and friends, and tranſplant them in ſlavery to diſtant lands. Their ſhip approached juſt as Alico had armed himſelf with his bow and quiver, and left his dwelling to ſeek for food. Maila was ſitting alone, tending her infant charge, and waiting his return, when the thunder of muſkets, and the ſhrieks of terror, aſſailed her ears! She ſtarted up at the unknown ſound, and, ſtraining her infant to her fluttering breaſt, went trembling to the entrance of her cave;—but who can paint her ſurprize and diſmay, as ſhe ſurveyed the ſtrange race dragging furiouſly, unmindful of age or ſex, her fellow natives by the limbs, and loading them with chains! Some, who ſpurned reſtraint, and whom the love of liberty

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animated to a reſiſtance, ſhe beheld fall victims to the poignards of their cruel oppreſſors. Ready to ſink, ſhe was juſt retiring, when, in the middle of the injured groupe, ſhe traced the features of her aged father. Fired with the impulſe of filial affection, ſhe ruſhed forward to the ſcene of rapine and murder; and, with ſtreaming eyes, throwing her arms around him, fell inſenſible on his neck. The heavy ſtripe of the Europeans ſoon brought Maila from the tranſitory reſignment of her reaſon, when ſhe felt her tender frame bowed down with the iron load, and linked to her unfortunate parent: they embraced, hung over each other, and ſhed ſhowers of tears at their unhappy deſtiny: they groaned out the name of Alico, imploring his aſſiſtance to avenge their unmerited injuries; but all the entreaties of dumb eloquence were unable to excite the ſenſations of mercy among the flinty-hearted Europeans, who exerciſed on their limbs the laſh of arbitrary power as they forced them along the beach.

Alico now returned from the fatigues of the chace, and bore on his ſhoulders the fruit of his toil. He entered the cavern, and, eaſing himſelf of his burden, turned round to give his Maila an affectionate embrace, when, lo! he miſſed both her and her child. Thrice he made the cavern reſound with his Maila's name; but, alas! no other anſwer greeted his ears than the echo of his plaintive voice. Wild and furious as the maniac, he armed himſelf doubly, and ruſhed out to ſeek her; he took the ſame road as the barbarians had done before him, and gained ſight of his Maila juſt as their boat was conveying her from the ſhore.

As the fond dove, who has left his neſt to ſeek food for his mate, finds it on his return with full bill empty of all that is dear to his heart, and perceiving her, whom more than life he loves, in the talons of the devouring hawk, he drops his food, cloſes his wings, and dies—So fell the fond and faithful Alico, when he beheld his Maila torn for ever from his arms, and under the controul of cruel ſtrangers; deſpair ſeized his brain; and, diſdaining to ſurvive his loſs, he caſt an imploring eye on Him who holds the ſcales of juſtice above, plunged headlong into the waves, and vaniſhed for ever!

REVIEW OF NEW BOOKS.

Narrative of a Five Years Expedition againſt the revolted Negroes of Surinam. By Captain Stedman. Continued from p. 191.

THE thirteenth chapter of the firſt volume opens with an account of a very happy eſtabliſhment enjoyed by our Author at a military ſtation, called the Hope, where he was in the principal command, on the Cimmewine River, in Surinam.

Captain S. here conſtructed a very commodious dwelling in a few days, which he particularly deſcribes. His ſituation in it, with his beloved companion, is given in the following words:

"On the 1ſt of April 1774, Joanna came down the river in the Fauconberg tent-boat, rowed by eight negroes, and arrived at the Hope. I communicated to her immediately the contents of my letter to Holland, which ſhe received with that gratitude and modeſty in her looks which ſpoke more forcibly than any reply. I introduced her to her new habitation, where the plantation ſlaves, in token of reſpect, immediately brought her preſents of caſada, yams, bananas, and plantains, and never two people were more completely happy. Free like the roes in the foreſt, and diſencumbered of every care and ceremony, we breathed the pureſt æther in our walks, and refreſhed our limbs in the limpid ſtream: health and good ſpirits were now again my portion, while my partner flouriſhed in youth and beauty, the envy and admiration of all the colony."

The following paſſage preſents a very honourable inſtance of the courage and fidelity of a negro:

"The poor negro, whom I had ſent before me with a letter, had been leſs fortunate than I was, having his canoe overſet in the middle of the river Surinam, by the roughneſs of the water. With great addreſs, however, he kept himſelf in an erect poſture (for this man could not ſwim), and by the buoyancy and reſiſtance of the boat againſt his feet, he was enabled juſt to keep his head above the water, while the weight of his body

body kept the ſunk canoe from moving. In this precarious attitude he was picked up by a man of war's boat; who taking away the canoe for their trouble, put him on ſhore at Paramaribo. He kept the letter, however ſurpriſing, ſtill in his mouth; and, being eager to deliver it, he accidentally ran into a wrong houſe; where being taken for a thief (for refuſing to let them read it), he was tied up to receive four hundred laſhes, but fortunately was reprived by the interceſſion of an Engliſh merchant of the name of Gordon, who was my particular friend, and knew the negro. Thus did the poor fellow eſcape drowning, and being flogged; either of which he would have undergone, ſooner than diſcloſe what he called the ſecrets of his Maſera."

We paſs on to the Second Volume, in which we find a lively deſcription of the Diary of a Surinam Planter, accompanied by a very characteriſtic print. It is thus delineated by our author:

"A Planter in Surinam, when he lives on his eſtate (which is but ſeldom, as they moſtly prefer the ſociety of Paramaribo), gets out of his hammock with the riſing ſun, viz. about ſix o'clock in the morning, when he makes his appearance under the piazza of his houſe; where his coffee is ready waiting for him, which he generally takes with his pipe, inſtead of toaſt and butter; and then he is attended by half a dozen of the fineſt young ſlaves, both male and female, of the plantation to ſerve him; at this *ſanctum ſanctorum* he is next accoſted by his overſeer, who regularly every morning attends at his levee; and having made his bows at ſeveral yards diſtance, with the moſt profound reſpect informs his Greatneſs what work was done the day before; what negroes deſerted, died, fell ſick, recovered, were bought or born; and, above all things, which of them neglected their work, affected ſickneſs, or had been drunk or abſent, &c. The priſoners are generally preſent, being ſecured by the negro-drivers, and inſtantly tied up to the beams of the piazza, or a tree, without ſo much as being heard in their own defence; when the flogging begins with men, women, and children, without exception. The inſtruments of torture on theſe occaſions are long hempen whips, that cut round at every laſh, and crack like piſtol-ſhot; during which they alternately repeat, *Dankee Maſera* (thank you, Maſter). In the mean time he ſtalks up and down with his overſeer, affecting not ſo much as to hear their cries, till they are ſufficiently mangled, when they are united, and ordered to return to their work, without ſo much as a dreſſing.

"This ceremony being over, the dreſſy negro (a black ſurgeon) comes to make his report; who being diſmiſſed with a hearty curſe, for allowing any ſlaves to be ſick, next makes her appearance a ſuperannuated matron, with all the young negro children of the eſtate, over whom ſhe is governeſs; theſe being clean waſhed in the river, clap their hands, and cheer in chorus, when they are ſent away to breakfaſt on a large platter of rice and plantains; and the levee ends with a low bow from the overſeer, as it began.

"His Worſhip now ſaunters out in his morning dreſs, which conſiſts of a pair of the fineſt Holland trowſers, white ſilk ſtockings, and red or yellow Morocco ſlippers; the neck of his ſhirt open, and nothing over it, a looſe flowing night-gown of the fineſt India chintz excepted. On his head is a cotton night-cap, as thin as a cobweb, and over that an enormous beaver hat, that protects his meager viſage from the ſun, which is already the colour of mahogany, while his whole carcaſe ſeldom weighs above eight or ten ſtone, being generally exhauſted by the climate and diſſipation. To give a more complete idea of this fine Gentleman, I preſent him to the reader in the plate with a pipe in his mouth, (which almoſt every where accompanies him), and receiving a glaſs of Madeira wine and water, from a female quaderoon ſlave, to refreſh him during his walk.

"Having loitered about his eſtate, or ſometimes ridden on horſeback to his fields, to view his increaſing ſtores, he returns about eight o'clock, when, if he goes abroad, he dreſſes, but if not, remains juſt as he is. Should the firſt take place, having only exchanged his trowſers for a pair of thin linen or ſilk breeches, he ſits down, and holding out one foot after the other, like a horſe going to be ſhod, a negro boy puts on his ſtockings and ſhoes, which he alſo buckles, while another dreſſes his hair, his wig, or ſhaves his chin, and a third is fanning him to keep off the muſquitoes. Having now ſhifted, he puts on a thin coat and waiſtcoat, all white; when under an umbrella,

umbrella, carried by a black boy, he is conducted to his barge, which is in waiting for him with six or eight oars, well provided with fruit, wine, water, and tobacco, by his overseer, who has no sooner seen him depart, than he resumes his command with all the usual insolence of office. But should this Prince not mean to stir from his estate, he goes to breakfast about ten o'clock, for which a table is spread in the large hall, provided with a bacon ham, hung-beef, fowls, or pigeons broiled; plantains and sweet cassavas roasted; bread, butter, cheese, &c. with which he drinks strong beer, and a glass of Madeira, Rhenish, or Mozell wine, while the cringing overseer sits at the farther end, keeping his proper distance, both being served by the most beautiful slaves that can be selected:—and this is called breaking the poor gentleman's fast.

"After this he takes a book, plays at chess or billiards, entertains himself with music, &c. till the heat of the day forces him to return into his cotton hammock to enjoy his meridian nap, which he could no more dispense with than a Spaniard with his *siesta*, and in which he rocks to and fro, like a performer in the slack rope, till he falls asleep, without either bed or covering; and during which time he is fanned by a couple of his black attendants, to keep him cool, &c.

"About three o'clock he awakes by a natural instinct; when, having washed and perfumed himself, he sits down to dinner, attended, as at breakfast, by his Deputy Governor and sooty Pages, where nothing is wanting that the world can afford in a western climate, of meat, fowls, venison, fish, vegetables, fruit, &c. and the most exquisite wines are often squandered in profusion; after this a cup of strong coffee and a liqueur finish the repast. At six o'clock he is again visited by his overseer, attended as in the morning by negro-drivers and prisoners, when the flogging once more having continued for some time, and the necessary order being given for the next day's work, the assembly is dismissed, and the evening spent with weak punch, sangaree, cards, and tobacco. His Worship generally begins to yawn about ten or eleven o'clock, when he withdraws, and is undressed by his sooty pages. He then retires to rest, where he passes the night in the arms of one or other of his sable sultanas (for he always keeps a seraglio) till about six in the morning, when he again repairs to his piazza walk, where his pipe and coffee are waiting for him, and where, with the rising sun, he begins his round of dissipation, like a petty Monarch, as capricious as he is despotic and *despisable*."

(*To be Continued.*)

A Description of the Country from thirty to forty miles round Manchester. The Materials arranged, and the Work composed, by J. Aikin, M. D. Embellished with 73 Plates. 4to. 3l. 3s. Boards. *Stockdale.*

THIS work is highly interesting, as including the history of a county, which, in a few years, has risen to a degree of opulence and splendour almost unexampled in the history of nations; and in which we have seen ingenuity and industry triumph over every obstacle of soil and climate; tracts of land, that seemed to be consigned by nature to perpetual sterility, become the abodes of ease and pleasure; even the elements themselves subdued by human labour; and canals constructed with such wonderful art and skill, as to be rendered more conducive to the prosperity of commerce than navigable rivers.—Neither mountains, rocks, marshes, nor rivers, check the course of these artificial streams; the rock is forced, the hill is perforated, the marsh is drained, the river submits to the bridge and the aqueduct; and it is not uncommon to see one vessel sail above the masts of another.

Great and important as the subject is, it receives additional interest from Dr Aikin's manner of treating it. As a specimen we shall transcribe an article or two.

Mines and Minerals.

Lead mines in Derbyshire are of great antiquity, undoubted proof existing that they were worked in the time of the Romans. They may be traced from the Saxon and Norman æras down through successive periods to the present time. The extent to which the business has been carried on at different periods, cannot with certainty be determined; but the produce of the mines during the last century has undoubtedly been very considerable. At present, lead ore is found in various parts of the country. Indeed it has been discovered in different quantity

tity throughout all the tract of limeſtone land; but it is met with in the greateſt abundance about ten miles to the north and ſouth of the river Wye.

Veins of lead ore, on account of their poſition in the earth, are diſtinguiſhed by the different names of *pipe*, *rake*, and *flat* works. A pipe-work lies between two meaſures of lime-ſtone regularly extending above and below. It conſiſts of ſeveral lines or branches running nearly parallel to each other, which have a general communication by means of ſlender threads, or leadings, as they are called by the miners. The rock is ſometimes pierced through by theſe leadings, which it is thought right to follow, as they often conduct to a freſh range. Should no ore be found on ſuch a purſuit, the breadth of the work is aſcertained: its length is indeterminate, depending much upon the dipping of the meaſures. If this be great, it begins to decline, or cannot be purſued further, on account of water. The rake-vein is found in the chaſms or clefts of the limeſtone, and conſequently breaks through the meaſures, and ſinks into the earth. It ſometimes penetrates 150 or 280 yards, generally in a ſlanting direction; and it has been followed to the diſtance of four miles from the place where it was firſt diſcovered. The flat-work reſembles the pipe, but has no leader or ſtem like that. It ſpreads wider, and ſeldom extends above 100 yards. It is alſo found near the ſurface, and in the ſolid rock, and is very weak and poor, being ſeldom thicker than a man's finger.

The veins of lead ore are generally incloſed in a yellow, red, or black ſoil, and are firmly connected with cauk, ſpar, or ſome other mineral. Their direction is not uniform. The pipes, never penetrating the meaſures, follow the dip of the country in which they are found. The rakes run ſtill more variouſly; in the High Peak, generally pointing eaſt and weſt; in the wapentake of Wirksworth, north and ſouth. Sometimes two veins cut each other at right angles; ſometimes the pipe and rake unite and run together a ſhort way, becoming ſtronger and richer. It is difficult to determine which of theſe two veins is moſt common, or moſt productive; the pipe, however, ſeem moſt generally valuable.

Veins are diſcovered various ways; ſometimes by attention to the nature of the ground, which leads the experienced miner to make a ſearch by boring; often by accidents laying open ſome branch which riſes to day. The more the branches which accompany a vein, the richer it is, and when they begin to diminiſh, it becomes poorer. Alſo, for the moſt part, a vein is impoveriſhed when it runs in ſuch a direction as to receive over it a greater number of meaſures. In working mines, a principal point is to free them from water; the moſt common and effectual method of doing which is to drive a ſough or level from the bottom of ſome neighbouring valley, as far as the works; where this cannot be done, pumps muſt be employed, which are either worked by a water wheel, or by a fire engine. Mines are freed from bad air by the introduction of a pipe down the ſhaft to the work, whence it is extended along the roof of the gallery. The circulation this occaſions proves an effectual remedy.

Trade of Mancheſter.

The trade of Mancheſter may be divided into four periods. The firſt is that, when the manufacturers worked hard merely for a livelihood, without having accumulated any capital. The ſecond is that, when they had begun to acquire little fortunes, but worked as hard, and lived in as plain a manner as before, increaſing their fortunes as well by economy as by moderate gains. The third is that, when luxury began to appear, and trade was puſhed by ſending out riders for orders to every market town in the kingdom. The fourth is the period in which expence and luxury had made a great progreſs, and was ſupported by a trade extended by means of riders and factors through every part of Europe.

It is not eaſy to aſcertain when the ſecond of theſe periods commenced; but it is probable that few or no capitals of 3000l. or 4000l. acquired by trade, exiſted here before 1690. However, towards the latter end of the laſt century, and the beginning of the preſent, the traders had certainly got money beforehand, and began to build modern brick houſes, in place of thoſe of wood and plaſter. For the firſt thirty years of the preſent century, the old eſtabliſhed houſes confined their trade to the wholeſale dealers in London, Briſtol, Norwich, Newcaſtle, and thoſe who frequented Cheſter fair. The profits were thus divided between the manufacturer, the

whole-

wholesale, and the retail dealer; and those of the manufacturer were probably though this is contrary to the received opinion) less per cent. upon the business they did, than in the present times. The improvement of their fortunes was chiefly owing to their œconomy in living, the expence of which was much below the interest of the capital employed. Apprentices at that time were now and then taken from families which could pay a moderate fee. By an indenture dated 1695, the fee paid appears to have been fifty pounds, the young man serving seven years. But all apprentices were obliged to undergo a vast deal of laborious work, such as turning warping mills, carrying goods on their shoulders through the streets, and the like. An eminent manufacturer in that age used to be in his warehouse before six in the morning, accompanied by his children and apprentices. At seven they all came in to breakfast, which consisted of one large dish of water-pottage, made of oatmeal, water, and a little salt, boiled thick, and poured into a dish. At the side was a pan or bason of milk, and the master and apprentices, each with a wooden spoon in his hand, without loss of time, dipped into the same dish, and thence into the milk pan; and as soon as it was finished, they all returned to their work. In George the First's reign, many country gentlemen began to send their sons apprentices to the Manchester manufacturers; but though the little gentry did not then live in the luxurious manner they have done since, the young men found it so different from home, that they could not brook this treatment, and either got away before their time, or, if they staid till the expiration of their indentures, they then, for the most part, entered into the army, or went to sea. The little attention paid to rendering the evenings of apprentices agreeable at home, where they were considered rather as servants than pupils, drove many of them to taverns, where they acquired habits of drinking that frequently proved injurious in after life. To this, in part, is to be attributed the bad custom of gilling, or drinking white wine as a whet before dinner, to which at one period a number of young men fell a sacrifice.

When the Manchester trade began to extend, the chapmen used to keep gangs of pack-horses, and accompany them to the principal towns with goods in packs, which they opened and sold to shopkeepers, lodging what was unsold in small stores at the inn. The pack-horses brought back sheeps wool, which was bought on the journey, and sold to the makers of worsted yarn at Manchester, or to the clothiers of Rochdale, Saddleworth, and the West-Riding of Yorkshire. On the improvement of turnpike roads waggons were set up, and the pack-horses discontinued; and the chapmen only rode out for orders, carrying with them patterns in their bags. It was during the forty years from 1730 to 1770 that trade was greatly pushed by the practice of sending these riders all over the kingdom, to those towns which before had been supplied from the wholesale dealers in the capital places before mentioned. As this was attended not only with more trouble, but with much more risk, some of the old traders withdrew from business, or confined themselves to as much as they could do on the old footing, which, by the competition of young adventurers, diminished yearly. In this period strangers flocked in from various quarters, which introduced a greater proportion of young men of some fortune into the town, with a consequent increase of luxury and gaiety. The fees of apprentices becoming an object of profit, a different manner of treating them began to prevail. Somewhat before 1760, a considerable manufacturer allotted a back parlour with a fire for the use of his apprentices, and gave them tea twice a-day. His fees, in consequence, rose higher than had before been known, from 25*l.* to 30*l.*; and he had three or four apprentices at a time. The highest fee known as late as 1769, was 50*l.* Within the last twenty or thirty years, the vast increase of foreign trade has caused many of the Manchester manufacturers to travel abroad, and agents or partners to be fixed for a considerable time on the Continent, as well as foreigners to reside at Manchester. And the town has now, in every respect, assumed the style and manners of one of the commercial capitals of Europe.

Salt Mines.

Rock-salt is found from twenty-eight to forty-eight yards beneath the surface of the earth. The first stratum or mine met with is from fifteen to twenty-one yards in thickness, perfectly solid, and

ſo hard as to be cut with great difficulty with iron picks and wedges. Of late, the workmen have blaſted it with gunpowder, by which they looſen and remove many tons together. The appearance of the ſalt is extremely reſembling that of brown ſugar-candy. Beneath this ſtratum is a bed of hard ſtone, conſiſting of large veins of flag, intermixed with ſome rock-ſalt, the whole from twenty-five to thirty-five yards in thickneſs. Under this bed is a ſecond ſtratum or mine of ſalt, from five to ſix yards thick, many parts of it perfectly white, and clear as cryſtal, others browner, but all purer than the upper ſtratum, yet reckoned not ſo ſtrong. Above the whole maſs of ſalt, lies a bed of whitiſh clay, which has been uſed in the Liverpool earthen ware; and in the ſame place is found a good deal of gypſum, or plaiſter-ſtone.

Rock-ſalt pits are ſunk at great expence, and are very uncertain in their duration, being frequently deſtroyed by the brine ſprings burſting into them, and diſſolving the pillars, by which the whole work falls in, leaving vaſt chaſms on the ſurface of the earth. In forming a pit, a ſhaft or eye is ſunk, ſimilar to that of a coal-pit, but more extenſive. After the workmen have got down to the ſalt-rock, and made a proper cavity, they leave a ſufficient ſubſtance of the rock, about ſeven yards in thickneſs, to form a ſolid roof, and as they proceed, they hew pillars out of the rock for the ſupport of that roof, and they employ gunpowder to ſeparate what they mean to raiſe. When well illuminated, the cryſtalline ſurface of the roof, pillars, and ſides of a large pit, make a glittering and magnificent appearance. Freſh air is conveyed from the mouth of the pit by means of a tube, which is over a large forge bellows, forming a continual current between the outer air and that in the pit. The pits at the greateſt depth are dry, and of a comfortable temperature.

The largeſt rock-ſalt pit now worked, is in the township of Witton, and in the lands of Nicholas Aſhton, Eſq. It is worked in a circular form, 108 yards in diameter, its roof ſupported by twenty-five pillars, each three yards wide at the front, four at the back, and its ſides extending ſix yards. The pit is fourteen yards hollow; conſequently each pillar contains 294 ſolid yards of rock-ſalt; and the whole area of the pit contains 9160 ſuperficial yards, little leſs than two acres of land.

The average quantity of rock-ſalt annually delivered from the pits in the neighbourhood of Northwich, for the laſt ſeven years, is 50,484 tons. Another account ſtates the annual average (no period mentioned) at about 65,000 tons. Upon this laſt calculation, the mode in which the rock-ſalt is diſpoſed of is ſtated to be, exported to Dunkirk, Oſtend, Riga, Bruges, Nieuport, Pillau, Elſineur, &c. from 45 to 50,000 tons: ditto to Ireland, from 3000 to 4000 tons: refined in England, viz.

At Northwich,	5000 tons.
Frodſham,	3000
Liverpool,	3000
Dungeons works,	2500

The rock-ſalt, as well as the white-ſalt, made at Northwich, is conveyed down the Weaver, and thence by the Merſey to Liverpool in veſſels from fifty to eighty tons burthen, and there reſhiped for foreign countries, or kept for refinement. We have already mentioned the great advantage Liverpool has derived from poſſeſſing ſuch an article for the ballaſt-loading of its outward-bound ſhips."

This publication is certainly well worthy the peruſal of all who wiſh to be informed reſpecting the trade and manufactures of Great Britain.

A View of the Cauſes and Conſequences of the preſent War with France. By the Hon. Thomas Erſkine.

THE ſubject of this pamphlet is certainly of the utmoſt importance to this country. The author ſtands high in the general opinion, both as a lawyer and a ſtateſman: Therefore his ſentiments muſt have weight. The work has been ſo well received, that we are informed it has paſſed through no leſs than 24 editions. That being the caſe, we ſhall not occupy much of our room with extracts from it. It is confeſſedly written againſt the conduct of miniſtry, and therefore, as may be expected, it holds out, in general, only one ſide of the queſtion. The *conſequences* of the war which the author deſcribes ſo emphatically have come to paſs; but had oppoſite or different meaſures been adopted, the *conſequences* to this country perhaps might have been worſe. No perſon who ſeriouſly reflects on the ſituation of matters

three

three years ago, when French principles were making ſuch rapid progreſs, will agree with the author in his opinion regarding the tranquillity of the country at that period, and the objects of the diſcontented. We have no doubt that the author's own intentions were really what he declares them to have been; "To bring the very cauſe which Mr Pitt had ſo recently taken the lead in, fairly and reſpectfully before the Houſe of Commons; in hopes, as they declared, to tranquiliſe the agitated part of the public, to reſtore affection and reſpect for the legiſlature, ſo neceſſary to ſecure ſubmiſſion to its authority; and, by concentrating the views of all reformers to the preſervation of our invaluable conſtitution, to prevent that fermentation of political opinion, which the French revolution had undoubtedly given riſe to, from taking a republican direction in Great Britain." But we are afraid, (indeed in many parts of Scotland, at leaſt, it was ſpoken out) that a diviſion of property, a ſyſtem of equality, was the object of very very many.

Our ſpecimen ſhall be confined to what the author ſays regarding the objects of the war, and the return of peace, that ſo much wiſhed-for event by all parties, claſſes, and conditions.

"With regard to the actual danger of ſuffering Belgium to remain with France, I am not ſufficiently maſter of the ſubject to be qualified publicly to diſcuſs it. It involves many weighty conſiderations, and is a fair ſubject of political difference. But I lay in my claim that the conſideration of its importance may always be diſcuſſed with a reference to the probability of regaining it, and the price at which it muſt be regained. Let it never be forgotten that by purſuing it through war, though upon the principle of ſecurity, we may regain it at a price which leaves us nothing to ſecure; which breaks up our credit, and diſſolves our government.

It is remarkable, that moſt of the arguments which were now employed to vindicate the rejection of peace, until Belgium can be ſeparated from the French Republic, are the conſiderations of diſtant and contingent conſequences; and theſe arguments are loud and vehement in the mouths of thoſe very men who ſcorned all conſequences, however immediate, when they were oppoſed to the ſyſtem of the war. It has appeared that when they began the conteſt they refuſed to look at its moſt obvious and calamitous conſequences; and when warned of them in every ſtage towards their accompliſhment, they rejected them with diſdain, as vague and viſionary ſpeculations. But now, when it becomes convenient to hold up conſequences in order to juſtify the continuation of hoſtilities, begun and proſecuted in utter contempt of them, they themſelves enter into ſpeculations the moſt diſtant and doubtful ever reſorted to by ſtateſmen. To diſappoint the advantages of peace, they look much farther forward into futurity than they were aſked by their opponents, in order to avert the horrors of war. They eſtimate, with all the anxiety of intereſted objection, every ſiniſter conſequence of a treaty which would leave France with an extended territory, augur other dangers to Great Britain upon the moſt remote and uncertain contingencies. Surely this is the very reverſe of that conduct which policy and morality univerſally dictate. War is in itſelf ſo mighty an evil, either politically or morally conſidered; it entails ſo many miſeries upon mankind, even after the attainment of all its objects, that it ought never to be engaged in until after every effort and ſpeculation have been employed to repel its approach. Peace, on the other hand, is the parent of ſo many bleſſings, that all nations ought to run into her embraces with an ardour which no diſtant or doubtful apprehenſions ſhould repel. What then muſt be the reſponſibility of the raſh and precipitate authors of war, and the uniformly backward negotiators of its termination?

The war is profeſſedly continued at this moment for another campaign or more, as circumſtances may ariſe; juſt as if it could be ſo kept up, upon the mere calculation of expence, to be put down again, like an eſtabliſhment or an equipage, at the call of convenience or prudence. In the mean time the great regular governments of Europe, diſſolved from their union, and exhauſted by their efforts, are becoming feeble as adverſaries, and contemptible to their own ſubjects, whilſt the ſmaller ſtates of Italy, from which France might have been withdrawn by a cordial and manly negotiation, are now ſtarting up into new conditions of ſociety, under the faſcinating banners of glory and victory;

and England, inſtead of dictating a conſtitution, and boundaries to the French republic, or ſettling at Paris the imaginary balances of Europe, may be probably ſoon driven to fight againſt her upon Engliſh ground for her own conſtitution; whilſt the waſte and anticipation of her reſources nouriſhes diſguſt and alienation to its excellent principles, and deſtroys that enthuſiaſm which nothing but the practical enjoyment of good government can inſpire.

But to ſpeak plainly and boldly my opinion with regard to peace, it is this --That when the relative ſituations of the two countries are conſidered, the ceſſion of Belgium to the Emperor, the arrangement concerning St Domingo, or any other ſpecific line of negotiation, are as duſt in the balance when compared with *the ſpirit and tenor* of the peace which hereafter ſhall be made.

Suppoſing by our great reſources, and by the chances of war, we could drive the government of France to recede from her preſent pretenſions, not upon the approach of a new æra of ſecurity, confidence, and friendſhip, but to avoid a political exploſion by the deſtruction of her credit: conſider coolly what ſort of peace this would be--where the hoſtile mind remained;--conſider how eaſily France might again embroil us to the hazard of our finances, and of our conſtitution which leans abſolutely upon public credit for ſupport. The excitation, therefore, which prevails at preſent to artificial hatred and diſtruſt of France, is a moſt fatal and ruinous policy for England. No man is leſs diſpoſed than I am to ſurrender an atom of the principles of our fathers to the French, or to any other principles. I ſhall on the contrary, be found at all times amongſt the foremoſt to aſſert them, becauſe I have been bred, beyond moſt others, to know their value: but the ſoundneſs of our inſtitutions, the attachment which muſt follow from a pure adminiſtration of them, and their moral connection with the public credit of the ſtate, convince me that our ſalvation muſt abſolutely depend upon a ſpeedy and liberal peace fought "in the ſpirit of peace, and laid in principles purely pacific." Theſe laſt words are the words of Mr Burke; they were employed by him, whilſt, to uſe his own expreſſion, "we yet worked in the light,"--they were employed by him to ſhew the means by which America might have been brought back to a profitable ſubjection to Great Britain, which if ſhe had been, all the calamities that have ſince deſolated Europe would have been averted.

I have no more doubt than I entertain of my own exiſtence, that if France ſaw a change in the Britiſh councils, and with that change a conſequent renunciation of the ſyſtem which produced the war, and which, though no longer avowed notoriouſly obſtructs its termination, the face of things would be entirely altered. The conſequences of our miſguided councils would no doubt load the negotiation, under whatever auſpices it might be produced. The ſtrong poſition which France has obtained, and the neceſſity to which England has reduced herſelf from the war, muſt be expected to be felt in the peace, whenever or by whomſoever it ſhall be made. But I look leſs to the terms, which I foreſee will raiſe the difficulties, and which beſides, may be ſmoothed and rounded by the ſpirit of conciliation, than I look to the future effects which that ſpirit would produce; to the ſolidity of the peace which would be foſtered under its wings; to the return of that good will and the liberal confidence between nations, by which the proſperity of each ſtrikes down freſh roots to the proſperity of all. Depend upon it, where peace is preſerved, and its true ſpirit cultivated, the world is large enough for all the nations which compoſe it. As they multiply in numbers, and increaſe in arts and improvements, traffic only becomes more extenſive and complicated; and traffic amongſt individuals, he who has the greateſt capital, and the beſt ſituation for trade, ſtarts with an advantage which only imprudence can deſtroy.

This is ſtill the ſituation of Great Britain. Her immenſe capital taken with all its mortgages, and her vaſt poſſeſſions in every quarter of the globe, would get the ſtart of all Europe, toſs it and tumble it, and divide it as you will, *ſo as peace only can be preſerved*. It is war following war, and accumulating revenue, their inſeparable companions, that alone can deſtroy, and which has already near accomplished the deſtruction of Great Britain.

That an honourable peace might even now be obtained, if rationaly and honeſtly purſued, every ſucceeding account eſtabliſhes

eſtabliſhes and confirms. Proceedings now provoke the indignation of the enlightened part of that nation, which not long ago would have been a ſignal for enthuſiaſtic approbation. What was formerly a ſavage feſtival is now ſcarcely endured as a political commemoration, and we ſee her public councils, even in the firſt tranſports of their unexampled victories, hailing them as the harbingers of univerſal tranquillity.

But a peace alone would not ſecure Great Britain, in the preſent ſtate of the world, as the war has left it. She muſt prepare to redeem herſelf from her burdens, and from the corruptions which occaſioned them, by the nobleſt acts of fortitude and ſelf-denial, and by the moſt rigid ſyſtem of œconomy: every expence that is uſeleſs or inconvenient muſt be put down: the reſources of the country muſt be ſifted and examined to the bottom, and the revenues upheld by their moſt judicious application. But no ſkill in finance, nor even integrity in a miniſter, can accompliſh theſe great objects, without creating in all ranks and claſſes of the people a deep and warm intereſt in the ſupporting additional burdens, and an enthuſiaſm in the conſtitution which protects them in their rights.

This ſtate of things is abſolutely incompatible with the whole political ſyſtem of policy adopted by the preſent adminiſtration. It is in vain to think of even attempting the renovation of our country, upon a principle of diſtruſt and terror of the very inhabitants which compoſe it. The only remedy againſt mobs is to extend to the multitude the full privileges of a people. To give awful dignity and ſecurity to the Commons of England, let every man who has a houſe over his head have the proud ſenſation that he is preſent in it by deputation. The alarm of ſuch a change, even though made by Parliament itſelf in the benevolence and juſtice of its diſpenſations, has always appeared to me very extraordinary. But its reception with enlightened men is wholly unaccountable. The ſtrength and ſecurity and government, by the breadth of a popular baſis, is confirmed by all experience, and by the univerſal analogies of things.

When a government emanates from the whole people, when the delegation, which forms the balance to its wiſely fixed executive, is ſufficiently mutable to prevent an agency from degenerating into a controul, and ſufficiently extended to be the organ of univerſal will, the clubs, and ſocieties, and conventions, which have frighted us out of our ſenſes, could not in the nature of things exiſt. When the people themſelves actually chuſe the popular branch of the legiſlature, that forms the controul upon the other parts of it, which are, for the wiſeſt purpoſes, put out of their own choice by other modifications, and where that choice is made for a very limited ſeaſon, upon what principle can rebellion exiſt againſt ſuch a Parliament, and who, in God's name, are to be the rebels? How can a people be brought to reſiſt a voluntary emanation from themſelves? By the operation of what vice or infirmity will they pull down the legiſlative organ of their own will? Even if ſuch a body ſhould occaſionally betray its truſt, the remedy is at hand without tumult or revolution; the agency expires by the forms of the conſtitution, and a better is appointed in its ſtead. The bad paſſions of men will, it is true, work up factions in the ſtate; but factions, where there is a broad and general repreſentation, are like waves which riſe in the ocean and ſink again inſenſibly into its boſom; it is only when confined and obſtructed that they daſh into foam, and deſtroy by the impetuoſity of their courſe.

Mr E. concludes his pamphlet thus:

There is one further and laſt example to be derived to future ages from the preſent fortunes of Great Britain, which it reſts with the people of England to furniſh to the world. By coming forward at this moment with prudence and with order, with a ſubmiſſion which wiſdom dictates to every people to their eſtabliſhed government, but with a firmneſs which at the ſame time reminds that government, that it exiſts only for their benefit and by their conſent, they may yet preſerve the country. This majeſtic and commanding conduct, will demonſtrate to future times, and to other nations, that there is no ſtate of adverſity which ought to reduce a great people to deſpair; that national adverſity cannot even exiſt for any long ſeaſon, but from wicked miſgovernment, and ſhameful ſubmiſſion to it; and that the advantage of our free conſtitution (well worthy of all the blood that has been ſhed for it; and which, may yet be ſhed

for

to preserve it) is, that it poſſeſſes within itſelf the means of its own reformation; inſuring to its ſubjects an exemption from revolution, the worſt of all poſſible evils, except that confirmed eſtabliſhment of tyranny and oppreſſion for which there is no other cure.

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POETRY.

FOR THE SCOTS MAGAZINE.

SIR,

IF the following Poem meets with your approbation, pleaſe give it a place. The writer being one of the ſiſterhood, her readers will, ſhe hopes, do her the juſtice to believe "that nothing in it is ſet down in malice." I am, Sir, yours &c. GLASGUENSIS.

Glaſgow, 4th April 1797.

ADVICE TO OLD MAIDS,

BY ONE OF THE SISTERHOOD.

Hail ſober ſtate, which all the world condemn!
The dread of women and the jeſt of men;
Be mine the taſk to vindicate thy fame,
And wreſt from obloquy thy injured name.
Be't mine to ſooth the hapleſs maiden's care,
Who ſees with anguiſh and with deep deſpair
Her boaſted beauties juſt begin to fade,
And ſhrinks with horror at the ſound!—*old maid.*

Ye gay coquets to you in chief belong
Th' inſtructive leſſon of your ſiſter's ſong;
With tend'reſt ſympathy ſhe views your ſtate,
Taught by experience now, but taught too late;
Yet let her hand your ſlippery foot-ſteps guide,
And ſave the ſex's darling idol—pride.
Ere faded roſes, need repairs of paint,
And well bred beaux through pity compliment,
Avoid the rout, avoid the ſprightly ball,
Where rang'd like evergreens along the wall,
You ſit in ſilent, ſad expectant ſtate,
As diſmal warnings to each gay coquet.
Ere perjured ſwains, who deſperate, but erewhile
Hung round in crowds, and brighten'd at your ſmile.
Bow *en paſſant* with fancy careleſs air,
And let you walk unhanded to your chair,
While yet your eyes ſome latent powers retain,
While yet ſome captives linger in your train,
While ſome fond ſighs will blame your haſty flight,
Some tender billets your return invite,
Retire, with decent and becoming grace,
And leave to younger belles your former place.
Thus prudent generals weakened troops withdraw
And quit the field of action with eclat.
But if the love of conqueſt ſtill remains,
And not content with leading apes in chains,
Releaſe your moral authors from their ſhelves,
And learn from them a conqueſt o'er yourſelves.
Ye prudes of nature, and ye prudes of art,
Who have, or feign to have, a frigid heart,
Who love and lovers both with ſcorn diſdain,
You will not ſurely ſtartle at the name,
Who ſtarch'd in buckram, walk with ſteps ſecure,
Prim, prudent, ſerious, envious, and demure,
Nor need you make the ſlighteſt change on earth,
'Tis but what fate pronounc'd you at your birth;
Yet would you 'ſcape the world's ſarcaſtic ſneer,
Which, prude or not, muſt wound a female ear,
To others virtues be your candour ſhewn,
And treat their faults as gently as your own.
And you, ye fair, whoſe more exalted mind,
By genius heightened, and by taſte refin'd
With every ſofter finer feeling glow,
The certain ſource of matrimonial woe;
Ah! think what ills attend the wedded life,
What cares diſtract the boſom of a wife;
Perhaps condemned in ſilent grief to mourn,
A huſband's coldneſs, or ſupport his ſcorn.
Bluſh for a fool, be wretched with a rake,
Or with a gameſter every comfort ſtake.

The

The slave of passion, petulence, and whim,
Constrained to honour, when she can't esteem.
Perhaps an infidel compell'd to hear,
Who pours his wretched doctrines in her ear,
Makes nature shudder at his impious jest,
And plants a barbed arrow in her breast,
Contrives to see her pious cares undone,
And forms an atheist from her darling son.
Or even should fate indulgent kindly blend
The tender husband and instructive friend,
And lavish fortune from her shining hoard,
And plenty crown, and children grace their board,
Nor then, even then, her peace securely rests,
For in the wife and mother's anxious breast,
Two phantoms dire despotic sway maintain,
And crush her joys beneath their iron reign.
Fear and solicitude in tyrant state,
Damp present bliss, and future woes create,
Bid through each nerve the alarming prefage fly,
Throb in her heart, and glisten in her eye;
Till she, who saw her early dawn o'ercast,
And singly brav'd misfortunes withering blast,
Appalled, now shudders at its mimic form,
And shrinks unequal from the fancied storm.
To feeling hearts, such Hymen's *happiest* state.

But ah! if fever'd by the hand of fate,
Deep struck she mourns, in sable garb array'd,
O'er the cold spot where her lov'd husband's laid,
The wretched victim of confirm'd despair,
Her children hardly meet her tender care.
With sickening soul their sprightly voice she hears.
And bathes their smiling faces with her tears.
Sad o'er them hangs, with pallid woe-worn look,
By even the wretches comfort, Hope, forsook.

THE NINTH ELEGY,

OF THE FOURTH BOOK OF OVID'S TRISTIUM,

Freely Translated.

To ————, Esq;

Si licet, et fateris, nemus audiisque tacebo,
Et tua Lelaps erit dulcior ipse tuis.

SAY, do you wish your name and guilt unknown,
And roundrel deeds in deep oblivion laid?
To tears, tho' tardy, mercy shall be shewn,
When without art contrition is display'd.
Let it appear that self-condemn'd you stand,
From Memory's tablet anxious to erase
The dirty flaemes which erst your malice plann'd,
When envy led you to be false and base.
Should still 'gainst me your heart with rancour rage,
Compell'd, unhappy, I must fly to arms;
From earth's extreme defensive war I'll wage,
And guard my fame from vile Assassins' harms.
'Twas Cæsar's will (perhaps you knew it not)
My civic rights uninjur'd should remain;
The loss of country he decreed my lot;
O may that country flourish 'neath his reign!
The Oak, tho' blasted by the bolt of Jove,
Much of its native vigour oft retains;
If for revenge too impotent I prove,
Each Muse will aid me with immortal strains.
Tho' doomed to draw far distant Scythia's air,
Where the parch'd stars ne'er lave in ocean's tide;
To num'rous nations, Fame my worth will bear,
Nor envy from the world my name shall hide.
Rumour will spread whate'er relates to me,
Whence the sun's beams first shew the dawning day,
To where his orb descending meets the sea,
And East and West my fame and wrongs display.
Nor to this age confin'd thy guilt be known,
For ever gibbeted thy crimes shall be;
Posterity, that cannot die, will shudd'ring own,
A wretch more worthless never breath'd than thee.
E'en *now* the war I wage with head unarm'd:
Ah! would to heaven for arms I had no cause:
The Ring is silent, yet the Bull's alarm'd,
Spurns the loose sand, and earth indignant paws.
Enough, my Muse! tis time we sound retreat,
Room for contrition I most willing yield?
Tis not too late repentance to complete,
And shroud his name behind Oblivion's shield.

ELEGIAC SONNET.

NOW plaintive Philomel forsakes the thorn,
And from her lowly nest the lark upsprings,
Warbling her wild notes to the meek-eyed morn,
Who waves aloft her dew-bespankled wings.
The roosted Cock pours forth his clarion shrill,
And from the mountain's brow dun night retires;
While music wakes around from every hill,
As reddening Phœbus lifts his golden fires.

But

But vain to me the opening landſcape ſmiles,
In young-eyed Spring's rich garniture array'd,
Since deep enſnar'd in love's deluſive wiles,
Hid in theſe ſhades, I mourn a faithleſs maid,
Who minds me not, but leaves me to deſpair,
And tell her baſeneſs to the deſert air.

FOR THE SCOTS MAGAZINE.

LINES *written on paſſing the church-yard of Roſhill, Dumbartonſhire, in January* 1796.

THE ſetting ſun with golden ray,
Hings o'er yon mountain's brow,
And rudely beat the ſtormy winds,
On Leven's plains below.

How bleak and dreary now the fields,
That late were clad in green?
And ſad, and joyleſs nymphs, and ſwains,
Behold the alter'd ſcene.

See ſorrow cloud, each downcaſt face,
Where mirth ſat crown'd before;
For gone is now the loveliеſt maid
That grac'd Loch Lomond's ſhore.

Thou *gentle ſhade*, if hovering low
Thou view'ſt this trickling tear;
Ilingers ſtill thine airy form
A parent's grief to cheer.

Yet oh! forgive the ſwelling ſigh,
For worth like thine laid low;
Nor blame the fond, the ſelfiſh wiſh,
To have thee ſtill below.

Tho' bleſt beyond the fondeſt wiſh
That friendſhip's heart could frame,
Thy ſpotleſs ſpirit ſoars aloft
A Seraph's crown to claim.

Where o'er *this* tomb, his arms ſo wide
The aged aſh tree waves,
And ſwiftly glides the limpid ſtream
Beſide yon mould'ring graves.

There at the ſilent hour of eve,
My lonely ſteps ſhall ſtray;
And pour to youth and beauty fled
The melancholy lay.

There oft ſhall fancy paint thy form
In native charms array'd,
And fondly dwell on every grace
Thy opening mind diſplay'd.

Peace to thy duſt diſtraſted maid,
Till death's ſhort reign is o'er,
And dawns the day when kindred ſouls
Shall meet to part no more.

B. A.

STATE PAPERS.

SUBSTANCE *of the Treaty between his Britannic Majeſty and the Landgrave of Heſſe Darmſtadt, ſigned at Frankfort, June* 10. 1796.

BE it known to thoſe whom it may concern, that his Majeſty the King of Great Britain, and his Serene Highneſs the Landgrave of Heſſe Darmſtadt, in conſideration of the ſtrict ties which unite their intereſts; and having judged, that in the preſent ſituation of affairs, it would contribute to the reciprocal welfare of Great Britain, and of the dominions of Heſſe Darmſtadt, to cement and ſtrengthen, by a new treaty of alliance, the connection which ſubſiſts between them, his Britannic Majeſty, in order to regulate the objects relative to this treaty, has thought proper to nominate Charles Craufurd, his Envoy at the Imperial and Royal Armies; and his Serene Highneſs has nominated on his part, for the ſame purpoſe, the Baron Charles of Barckhaus, his Privy Counſellor, and Director of the Council of War; who, being furniſhed with the neceſſary full powers, have agreed to take for baſis of the preſent Treaty, the one formerly concluded between Great Britain and Heſſe, the fifth of October, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety three, to adopt ſuch parts of it as may be applicable to the preſent circumſtances, or to ſettle, by new articles, thoſe points which it may be neceſſary to regulate otherwiſe: and as it is not poſſible to ſpecify each particular caſe, every thing which ſhall not appear to be determined in a preciſe manner, either in the preſent Treaty or in the former Treaty, ſhall be ſettled with equity and faith, in conformity to the ſame principles which have been adopted in former inſtances.

Article I. There ſhall be, therefore, in virtue of this Treaty, between his Majeſty the King of Great Britain, and his Serene Highneſs the Landgrave of Heſſe Darmſtadt, their heirs and ſucceſſors, a ſtrict friendſhip, and a ſincere, firm, and conſtant union; ſo that the one ſhall conſider the intereſts of the other as his own, and ſhall ſtrive to promote them with good faith as much as poſſible, and to prevent and remove all diſturbance and injury.

Art. II. His Majeſty the King of Great Britain, deſiring to have in his ſervice a body of troops, to be employed wherever he may think proper, excepting in the Eaſt Indies, or on board the fleet, and his Serene Highneſs wiſhing for nothing more than to give his Majeſty this freſh proof his attachment, engages, by virtue of this article, to

fet on foot three battalions of infantry, forming a body of two thoufand two hundred and eighty-four men, according to the annexed fpecification; thefe troops fhall be ready to pafs in review before his Britannic Majefty's Commiffary the fourteenth day of July of the prefent year, at Darmftadt, and to begin their march the following day for the place of their deftination. The General whom his Britannic Majefty fhall appoint Commander in Chief in the countries where thefe fhall ferve, fhall have authority to employ them, either together or in detachments, and even to difperfe them amongft the different iflands or diftricts of his command, in the manner which he fhall judge the moft advantageous for His Majefty's fervice. It being notwithftanding, well underftood, that thefe troops fhall always remain under the immediate orders of their own Chiefs.—The faid corps fhall conſiſt of men difciplined and exercifed, and well armed and equipped.

Art. III. In order to defray the expences to which the Serene Landgrave fhall be put for the equipment of the faid corps of troops, his Britannic Majefty promifes to pay to his Serene Highnefs, for each man, thirty crowns banco, the crown being reckoned at fifty-three fols of Holland, or at four fhillings and nine pence three farthings Engliſh money, of which payment fhall be made immediately after the review, and according to the effective ſtate as fhall then be verified. All the camp neceſſaries, as likewife all the horfes, valets de bat, and waggoners, who may be neceſſary for the troops, as well for tranſporting the equipages, provifions, ammunition, utenfils, and other objects of every kind, as for the field-pieces, with their implements and artillery men, fhall be furnifhed by his Britannic Majefty wherever they may be wanted.

Art. IV. Befides the levy money ſtipulated in the preceding article, his Britannic Majefty fhall cauſe to be paid to every officer, as alſo to every one employed, not a fighting man of equal rank, the ſum of three months pay, according to his rank, and upon the ſame footing as national troops, in order to facilitate the expence of his private equipment, which payment fhall be made immediately after the ſignature of the prefent treaty.

Art. V. His Majefty the King of Great Britain engages himſelf, in like manner, to pay to the Serene Landgrave an annual ſubſidy during the ſix years this treaty is to continue. This ſubſidy ſhall commence from the day of the ſignature, and it fhall be paid at the rate of eighty thoufands crowns banco per annum. The payment of this ſubſidy ſhall be made regularly, without abatements every quarter, to the Agent of his Highneſs in London.

Art. XVII. If before the period of the review, his Britannic Majeſty ſhall find himſelf diſpoſed to renounce this treaty entirely, his Serene Highneſs ſhall receive, under the title of indemnification, 1ſt. The levy money.—2d. The equipage money allowed to the Officers.—3d. Three months pay for the whole of the troops, according to the table annexed to the ſecond article.—One year's ſubſidy.

Done at Franckfort, this 10th of June, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-ſix.

(L. S.) C. Craufurd.
(L. S.) C. Barkhaus. B. D.

Rescript, *publiſhed by order of the King of Pruſſia, reſpecting the Pruſſian territories on the left bank of the Rhine.*

Frederick William II.

WE having been informed, that an opinion has been propagated through a part of our State of Weſtphalia, ſituated on the left Bank of the Rhine, to wit, the Provinces of Cleves, Meurs, and Guelders, in the actual poſſeſſion of the French troops, that ſufficient remonſtrances and proteſtations had not been made on our part againſt the various innovations and oppreſſions which the French Commiſſaries and Agents exerciſe over our faithful ſubjects; we have therefore thought it good to make this public declaration, by means of our Regency, jointly with our Chamber of War and of Territory; and we do publicly declare, that we have never ceaſed, nor ſhall we ever ceaſe, to intereſt ourſelves in behalf of our ſaid ſubjects, by the intervention of our Envoy to the French Republic; and that it is far from our intention to depart from the baſis of the Treaty of Baſle, reſpecting the Civil and Financial Adminiſtration of thoſe Countries.

In concluding the treaty by which the war between our State and the French Republic was put an end to, it was never our intention to grant them more than a mere military poſſeſſion of our provinces on the left ſide of the Rhine, till peace ſhould be concluded with the Emperor; and this intention, which had been taken as a baſis in the negotiations, is ſufficiently manifeſt by the tenor of the 5th Article, which expreſsly declares, "That the troops of the Republic ſhall occupy their countries belonging to it."

The difference between Provinces conquered from an enemy, and thoſe which belong to a Power in alliance, and which have been merely conceded for a temporary military occupation, is ſufficiently evident; and it is obvious that they ought not to be treated in the ſame manner.

It is therefore impoſſible for us to believe that the French Government, conſidering the amicable ties ſubſiſting between us and its

will ſtill oppoſe ſuch evident reaſoning. It cannot fail to conceive, that neither ſequeſtration nor confiſcation of the goods of the Clergy, nor the projected ſale of woods, nor the enormous contribution of three millions, impoſed on the country between the Meuſe and the Rhine, which would entirely ruin that country, can take place with any regard to appearance of juſtice.

It has already in effect given our Envoy at Paris the moſt poſitive aſſurance, that the meaſures taken with reſpect to the Clergy ſhould be put an end to, and that the Eccleſiaſtics ſhould remain in quiet enjoyment of their goods and revenues; we, therefore, conſtantly expect the revocation of the order for the ſale of woods, and, in general, a renunciation of all thoſe deſtructive innovations relative to our dominions.

We ſhall not by any means recognize as valid the ſale of woods, which have already taken place to our great aſtoniſhment; and we are poſitively determined to have recourſe to the purchaſers for reſtitution in kind, or for the value at which the property ſold ſhall be eſtimated by our agents, and for the damages which ſhall reſult from the waſte committed on theſe woods.

In thoſe caſes, where the purchaſers cannot be found, we ſhall exerciſe our ſeverity on all thoſe who are employed by theſe laſt, for cutting and carrying wood. We, in conſequence, exhort our faithful ſubjects of the ſaid Provinces to remain aſſured of our laſting and efficacious protection, and to wait with confidence for the return of that ancient order of things, ſo highly to be deſired.

At Weſel, in our Chamber of War and Territory, 29th December 1796, in the name and on the behalf of his Majeſty,
BARON DESTEIN, Firſt Preſident.

Given at Emmerick, in our Regency, the 29th December 1796, in the name and on behalf of his Majeſty.
ELBERS.

LETTER *from Preſident Waſhington to Gentlemen of the Senate, and of the Houſe of Repreſentatives,*

"AT the oppening of the preſent Seſſion of Congreſs, I mentioned that ſome circumſtances of an unwelcome nature had lately occured in relation to France; that our trade had ſuffered and was ſuffering extenſive injuries in the Weſt-Indies, from the cruizers and agents of the French Republic; and that communications had been received from its Miniſter here, which indicated danger of a further diſturbance of our commerce by its authority; and that we were, in other reſpects, far from agreeable; but that I reſerved for a ſpecial meſſage a more particular communication on this intereſting ſubject. This communication I now make.

"The complaints of the French Miniſter embraced moſt of the tranſactions of our Government, in relation to France, from an early period of the preſent war; which, therefore, it was neceſſary carefully to review. A collection has been formed of letters and papers relating to thoſe tranſactions, which I now lay before you, with a Letter to Mr Pinckney, our Miniſter at Paris, containing an examination of the notes of the French Miniſter, and ſuch information as I thought might be uſeful to Mr Pinckney in any further repreſentations he might find neceſſary to be made to the French Government. The immediate object of this miſſion was, to make to that Government ſuch explanations of the principles and conduct of our own, as, by manifeſting our good faith, might remove all jealouſy and diſcontent, and maintain that harmony and good underſtanding with the French Republic, which it has been my conſtant ſolicitude to preſerve. A Government which required only a knowledge of the *truth* to juſtify its meaſures, could not but be anxious to have this fully and frankly diſplayed.

GEO. WASHINGTON.
United States, Jan. 19, 1797.

BRITISH PARLIAMENT.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Mar. 10. *Mr Pitt*, after a few prefatory obſervations, moved, that a ſelect committee ſhould be appointed to examine and report their opinion to the Houſe, reſpecting the whole amount of the public debt, with the intereſt and charges thereon, on the 5th of January 1797, diſtinguiſhing what part had accrued ſince the 5th of January 1795, and alſo the amount of the produce of the permanent taxes for the laſt four years; and alſo to examine and report on the extent of the unfunded debt, outſtanding on the 5th of January 1797; and the expected additional demands, ending the 5th of January 1798, in caſe the war continues, together with the ways and means neceſſary for defraying the ſame. He then moved, that the Committee be a Committe of Secrecy.—Agreed to.

SINECURE PLACES AND PENSIONS.

13. *Mr Harriſon* called the attention of the Houſe to a ſubject, of no ſmall importance to the country, at a period when the public expenditure ſo far exceeded the income, that there appeared hardly a poſſibility of ſupporting any longer the accumulated burthens to which this calamitous war has given riſe; at a period too, when all the artifice and magic of Adminiſtration, ſo far from furthering the objects of the war, had tended only to excite alarms in the minds of the people, and to deſtroy the credit of the country. All their expedients to keep the evil from our doors, only fanned the embers of diſcontent and danger at home, and inſpired our enemies with confidence in their exertions. The public burthens, he ſaid, were not merely occaſioned by the war expenditure; they were materially increaſed by the erection of new offices, and the profuſion and prodigality of miniſters in every department, for the benefit of their ſatellites and dependents. He then mentioned a few places and fees, not amounting to any conſiderable ſum, which he wiſhed to be applied to public purpoſes; among them were the ſalary of the third ſecretary of ſtate, which he ſtated at 5000l. a-year, and certain fees, ariſing from contingent bills in the war department, amounting to about 550,000l. There was alſo a profit which accrued to army agents on the contingent bills alluded to, which they were ready to bring to light on the payment of arrears. He likewiſe enumerated ſeveral ſuperfluous offices in the houſhold, the retrenchment of which, he ſaid, would at leaſt enſure the remaining incumbents to more regular payment of their quarterly ſalaries.

Lord W. Ruſſel, in ſeconding the motion, adverted to the embarraſſments in the commercial world, which he conſidered as a natural conſequence of the profligacy of Adminiſtration in the export of ſpecie, and the ſyſtem of deluſion they had practiſed upon the public, for the aggrandizement of their own power.

Mr Pitt conſidered great part of what had fallen from the honourable mover, and the Noble Lord who ſeconded the motion, as irrelevant to the ſubject under diſcuſſion. The precautions which had been taken for internal defence, and the preſervation of the public credit, were dictated by neceſſity, with a view to counteract the machinations of a faction in concert with the enemy. Having noticed this collateral point, he proceeded to the object of the hon. mover's motion. He had not, he lamented, entered into a detail of the offices which he had conſidered as ſuperfluous. This motion was not, the right hon. gentleman ſaid, a motion which the Houſe had a right to expect from the notice. It was a ſubject connected with an intimation which the Houſe would recollect had been thrown out by him (the Chancellor of the Exchequer) in a former debate, when he ſuggeſted the propriety of referring to the committee of Secrecy, on the finances of the country, the public income and expenditure, compared with the ways and means for defraying the expences of the current year. He did not think he ſhould act fairly by the public, did he not ſtate his diſbelief, that, on the event of the inquiry about to be inſtituted, any ſaving could be produced. The true queſtion was, Whether the number of offices be more than the duty performed, and whether the remuneration given was more than adequate to the talents and induſtry of the incumbents, with a reference to individuals of talents and induſtry in any of the profeſſions and ſituations in life? On a fair and impartial review of the ſubject, he was confident that the remuneration was barely commenſurate to the ſervices performed. There were offices of a different deſcription, connected with the ſplendour and repreſentation of Majeſty; an expence which, he believed, was attached, under ſome denomination or other, on every country, for the ſupport of the Executive Government. The next deſcription of individuals, alluded to by the hon. mover, were thoſe who held patent-places. Theſe were rewards for meritorious ſervices, and had always been recognized, and admitted, as ſacred and freehold as any other property. After reaſoning with much ingenuity and effect on the juſtice and propriety of the offices under conſideration, Mr Pitt called the attention of the Houſe to the reduction that had already been made, and the ſavings that had been made in conſequence. Under this notion of an œconomical reform in 1782, and a ſubſequent inquiry by the treaſury, 278 offices had been aboliſhed, and the expences reduced from 171,000l. to 60,000l.

60,000l. The ſalaries of the Exchequer-office had been materially reduced, as had the auditors of impreſs. The ſavings from theſe were nearly 60,000l. The penſion-liſt had been reduced, ſince 1783, above 48,000l. and during the ſame period, ſinecures in the cuſtoms to the amount of 130, the expence of which was 15,680l. had been ſuppreſſed. In the Excife there was a ſaving of nearly 12,000l. and Lotteries, &c. were under ſuch regulations as prevented corrupt influence. He ſhould therefore move the previous queſtion, not wiſhing to preclude the Houſe from inquiry, ſhould it afterwards be judged expedient. He accordingly moved "the previous queſtion."

Mr Sheridan read from the *Red Book* a variety of offices which he deemed ſuperfluous. Among them, he enumerated the places enjoyed by Mr Roſe, who was clerk of the parliament, maſter of the pleas, ſurveyor of the green wax, &c. &c. producing an annual revenue of 10,000l. If a hundred thouſand pounds only were ſaved, would it not, he aſked, be a conſiderable ſum in aid of the public burthens, ſo enormouſly increaſed by the proſligacy of the miniſter.

Mr Roſe entered into a vindication of the conduct of adminiſtration, and called the attention of the Houſe to Mr Burke's bill, which expreſsly required compenſation for thoſe who were aggrieved.

Mr Windham ſaid, the preſent ſubject had been diſcuſſed on the broadeſt principle in the year 1782, and he was convinced that the enlarged and philoſophic mind of Mr Burke had then gone as far as it was poſſible to go. Would the hon. gentlemen withhold all remuneration from political ſervice, or did they ſuppoſe that a man who ſerved the ſtate was to be always in office? If the ſalary was to be a mere ſubſiſtence, and without any conſequent remuneration, then none but men of fortune could afford to ſerve their country. With reſpect to the calamities of the times, he felt them as much as gentlemen on the oppoſite ſide, though he ſaw them, perhaps, in a different point of view. He knew that our commerce and manufactures were not decayed; our means, our wealth, and our luxuries, were not diminiſhed. We ſhared, no doubt, in the general diſtreſs of Europe, and felt our portion of the common preſſure, in conſequence of the great extenſion of the French territory. But of what reſources were the public now called on to avail themſelves? of the *ends* of *candles*, of *rags*, and *cheeſe-parings*? This was only done for the purpoſe of deluſion. If placemen were to pay, let them pay under a general tax. If neceſſity were to be made a plea for ſeizing on any particular ſpecies of property, gentlemen ſhould be aware of the miſchief of the precedent. The large eſtate of the hon. mover may, in the next inſtance, form a preſumption of delinquency. Mr Windham concluded by ſaying, that thoſe who declaimed moſt loudly againſt corruption, could never perſuade the public that the majority of that Houſe could be ſo corrupted as to act againſt their own intereſts.

Mr Fox ſaid, that an hon. gentleman (Mr Windham) had laid down ſome principles, which being of themſelves incontrovertible, he ſhould not now have noticed, but that he deemed it neceſſary to ſhew that they were inapplicable to the preſent queſtion. Of this nature was the poſition, "that no neceſſity whatever, on the part of the State, could juſtify any ſeizure from any particular claſs of men." If this principle were once rejected, a ſyſtem of univerſal robbery muſt inevitably follow. The hon. gentleman had argued as if Mr Burke, and thoſe who acted with him in the year 1782, had gone as far as it was poſſible to go. The reverſe of this was the caſe. The right hon. gentleman had propoſed many other reforms beſides thoſe in the houſehold. He inſtanced certain offices in the Exchequer, the Juſticeſhips in Eyre, &c. reforms which could not be carried into effect by the brief Adminiſtration in which he had a ſhare, and which had ſince been wholly overlooked. Theſe may be called trifling in their amount, but they had been proſecuted by Mr Burke, not only in a financial, but in a conſtitutional point of view. He looked not ſo much to the money which was to be ſaved, as to the patronage which was to be diminiſhed. Had this ruinous influence been diminiſhed in any degree; if the dictates of the miniſter had been leſs potential in the laſt Parliament, the right hon. gentleman (Mr Windham) would not, in all probability, have now to deſcant on the calamities of this country, ariſing from the extenſion of the French territory.

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The nation would, in all likelihood, have been ſaved from the war which had ſo greatly aggrandized the French republic; and Belgium, Holland, and Italy, would not have been under her influence, nor in her poſſeſſion. He did not impute motives of corruption to Mr Windham, or to all thoſe gentlemen on the oppoſite ſide, who once felt and acted with him; but he muſt ſay, that their conduct had been ſuch, as to induce a ſuſpicion with reſpect to the political motives of all public men. They might have quitted their friendſhips, and ſwerved from their principles, and yet ſuppoſe themſelves ſtanding on a higher ground. But their acceptance of places and emoluments had given ſuch a material wound to public confidence, that, to clear the honour of that Houſe, and particularly that of the minority, who may be ſuppoſed, in vulgar language, "to hanker after the loaves and fiſhes," he muſt give his ſtrongeſt ſupport to the preſent motion. He had rather that ſuch temptations as ſinecures, &c. did not exiſt, than that they ſhould be falſely ſuppoſed to be the ſole object of public men.

Mr Tierney confeſſed that he felt ſome difficulty in giving his vote as the queſtion then ſtood. The Chancellor of the Exchequer had acceded in part to the propoſition of the hon. mover, but was for referring the conſideration of it to the committee appointed to inquire into the ſtate of the nation. In this conduct of the right hon. gentleman, he was happy to recognize ſomething of a change of principle and conduct, which, as a reformer, he could not but approve; and, from this favourable ſymptom, he was induced to hope that ere long he ſhould ſee the Chancellor of the Exchequer take his old friend, Parliamentary Reform, by the hand. He did not, however, think that a committee, appointed by ballot to inquire into the financial ſtate of the nation, a proper one for the preſent queſtion to be referred to.

A diviſion took place, when there appeared, for the previous queſtion 169
Againſt it 77

The original motion was then negatived without a diviſion.

BANK OF ENGLAND.

20. *Mr Pitt* remarked, that the Order for the commitment of the Bill for confirming and continuing the late Order of Council reſpecting the Bank, ſtood for this day; but ſome circumſtances had come to his knowledge ſince the notice was given, which he begged to ſtate to the Houſe. In the courſe of this forenoon, he had converſed with ſeveral intelligent Gentlemen, who were Bankers. They had ſuggeſted ſome very important information, and had expreſſed a wiſh to take the ſenſe of a general meeting of the Bankers to-morrow. It was his wiſh, therefore, to poſtpone the commitment of the bill. He had intended, he ſaid, to go into the Committee to-day, and to defer the diſcuſſion till the recommitment, or the report which might take place on Thurſday; but, on coming down to the Houſe, he had been told that many Gentlemen had gone away, under the impreſſion that the meaſure was not intended to be brought forward this day at all, and the thinneſs of the Houſe favoured that report. Thus circumſtanced, he felt that he could not with propriety propoſe the Order of the Day, with a view to its being carried into effect. He therefore moved, that the Order of the Day ſhould be diſcharged, and that the bill ſhould be committed on Wedneſday next.

The Order was accordingly read and diſcharged, and a new Order made for Wedneſday.

Sir John Sinclair repeated what he had ſaid on a former occaſion, reſpecting the propriety of deferring the paſſing of this bill, until the Bank Proprietors had an opportunity of meeting and taking the meaſure into conſideration. He was happy to find the preſent delay would give them an opportunity of petitioning, if they thought themſelves aggrieved by its operation.

PROMULGATION OF THE STATUTES.

Mr Abbot in a ſpeech of conſiderable length, urged the inconveniences that reſulted from the defective manner in which the laws were promulgated, and expatiated on the reſolutions which he afterwards ſubmitted to the Committee. He expreſſed his wiſh to amend the parliamentary diction of Acts, which generally involved the operative ſentences in a wilderneſs of words, without adding to the ſenſe, but this object he had with much reluctance abandoned. It was likewiſe deſireable to retrench all the technical terms, which produced ſo much obſcurity and perplexity in our old code of juriſprudence, but this he had alſo been obliged to re-

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linquish for the present. As a specimen of what he wished on this head, he mentioned the Acts of the American Congress, which were promulgated without any of the inconveniences to which British acts were subject, from a redundance of words and phrases. He concluded by moving eight resolutions, of which the following is the substance: 1. It is the opinion of this Committee, that it is expedient that his Majesty's printer, instead of 1126 copies of acts, as he now prints, be authorised and directed to print 3550 copies of every public act, 200 of every public local act, (including Road, Canal Acts, &c.) and 200 of every private act. The second and third Resolutions related merely to the mode of distributing those public and private acts through the medium of the Post-Office. The 4th enjoins the Chief Magistrates of towns corporate, Scotch boroughs, and Sheriffs of counties, to receive those copies, to preserve them for public use, and transmit them to their successors in office. The 5th charges the parties interested in the prosecution and event of private bills, to transmit the copies to the Magistrates in their respective districts, without any additional charge to the public. The 6th directs the King's printer to state the general heads of the statutes, together with the general substance of each act. The 7th provides that the duration of any temporary law be expressed in the title of the bill, and at the end of it, and no where else. And the 8th enjoins, that all the statutes intended to be revived shall be included in one bill, describing the statutes respectively; and those of a temporary nature in another bill, describing the precise duration and continuance.

The House resumed, the Chairman brought up the report, and the resolutions were ordered to be taken further into consideration this day se'enight.

22. *Sir John Sinclair*, in conformity to notice, rose to submit the notice he had given of his intention to propose a measure for the cultivation of Waste and other Lands. It was unnecessary, he remarked, to dwell on the importance of a subject so intimately connected with the prosperity of the country. He concluded, by requesting gentlemen to give the subject the most serious attention, and moved, That a Committee be appointed to take into consideration the most effectual means of promoting the cultivation and improvement of Waste Lands, Common Arable Fields, Common Meadows, &c. within this kingdom.

The Motion passed, and a Committee was appointed.

THE BANK.

The Order of the Day for the House to resolve itself into a Committee on the bill for confining and continuing the late Order of Council, &c. was read.

In the debate on this clause of restriction, Mr Pitt said, he admitted that the bankers had communicated to him the necessity of a supply of cash for the accommodation of their customers, and that he had used what influence he possessed, as an individual, to further their views. The Bank concurred, and permission was given for the issue of 50,000 guineas, to prevent obstructions in the payment of demands upon them, and this sum was distributed according to the direction of the committee of Bankers.

STATE OF IRELAND.

24. *Mr Fox* said, the business he had to bring before the House was not only of great importance, but likewise of great urgency, on account of the distracted condition of the sister kingdom. He entered into a detail of the circumstances that led to these discontents, and adverted to the part he had taken in 1782, to remove various grievances, which produced similar distractions, in consequence of the appeals to the Parliament and courts of justice in this country. The causes of the present discontents were fit subjects of investigation. 1. The House ought to inquire how far the people of Ireland have had the benefit of the concessions that had been made. 2. Whether measures had been taken to allay the discontents among the Roman Catholics, who constituted five sixths of the people of Ireland. And, 3. To inquire into the causes of the discontents in the North of Ireland. The general dissatisfaction he ascribed to the calamities brought on by the war, in which the interests of the people were not consulted, and to their constitutional grievances. Ireland, he said, had not a Legislature, even virtually, representing the people, and they had as little share in the government as the subjects of the most arbitrary monarch. The concessions that had been made, he contended, from a variety of facts, had not produced an independence of

the

the Miniſters and Cabinet of this country, it had only precluded the controul of the Legiſlature. After taking a view of the political hiſtory of Ireland, and uſing ſimilar arguments to thoſe brought forward by Lord Moira in the Houſe of Lords, (p. 278.) Mr Fox obſerved, if Miniſters were at a loſs what line of conduct they ought to purſue, he would refer them to the celebrated ſpeech of that eloquent author, Mr Burke, on the means of conciliating America, and his letter to the electors of Briſtol.—Theſe productions contained information well worth their conſideration, and would be the beſt illuſtration of his argument, to ſhew that the preſent diſcontents were not like the ſtruggles for the elevation of a Stuart or a Brunſwick, where both could not be ſucceſsful. The preſent diſcontents were all capable of compromiſe and temperament, without trenching on the privileges, or abridging the comforts of any claſs of men. It might be aſſerted, that, "give the Catholics religious emancipation, and they will next require political conceſſions:" granted. It was reaſonable and fit; but admitting that it was not ſo, ſtill he ſhould think it was better to treat than to ſuffer them to fight for it. It might be ſaid, "Amelioration won't do;" you can then, he ſaid have recourſe to arms, but the fatal conſequences of engaging at the end of one war in another ought moſt ſtrenuouſly to be avoided. He knew of no meaſure for governing mankind ſo effectual as the gratification of their wiſhes, and he conceived the beſt practical leſſon on the ſubject was "to let Ireland be governed in her own way." To let Ireland be governed by Iriſh prejudices, Iriſh councils, and Iriſhmen, and theſe conceſſions would inſure to this country their friendſhip and eſteem. If a rebellion unfortunately broke out in Ireland, it muſt be quelled by Engliſh reſources, for it was well known that many men of property in Ireland could bring more members into the repreſentation, than they could raiſe ſoldiers on their eſtates for their protection! Though he poſſeſſed no property in Ireland, yet he ſhuddered at the idea of ſeeing ſome reſpectable friends of his in that country expoſed to public horrors, aggravated by private diſtreſs. He hoped, that on ſo urgent an occaſion, no objections would be taken in point of form. The neceſſity of the interference ought to ſuperſede all conſiderations of this nature. He concluded by moving, "That an humble Addreſs be preſented to his Majeſty, praying that he would be graciouſly pleaſed to take into his royal conſideration the diſturbed ſtate of Ireland, and to adopt ſuch lenient meaſures as may tend to reſtore tranquillity, and conciliate the affections of his Iriſh ſubjects."

Sir F. Bourdette ſeconded the motion.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer ſaid, that, however general the terms of the motion were, it was impoſſible to ſeparate them from the topics or the ſpeech by which they were introduced; it was impoſſible not to connect it with the tenor of the opinions diſcloſed by the Right Hon. Gentleman, in his review of the whole character and proceedings of the Iriſh Legiſlature. He had begun by reminding the Houſe, that he had acknowledged it neceſſary to recognize the independence of Ireland, and of its ſeparate Legiſlature. None had, indeed, praiſed that recognition more than the Hon. Gentleman. Was that Parliament, which he then ſtated as the ſource of bleſſings to the country, better adapted to the ſenſe of the Diſſenters in the north, or the Catholics in the ſouth, than the preſent, which he treated as the mere deluſion of a Repreſentative Government? On the contrary, the Catholics had then no vote for repreſentatives. On what ground, after this warm approbation, could he declare a neceſſity for altering the whole frame of that Legiſlature, and violating that independence? Could the Iriſh Parliament fail to be jealous of ſuch an interference and controul from a body having no juriſdiction over them? The queſtion for the Houſe to conſider was, does the care of Ireland belong to the Executive Government, or to the Legiſlature? and, if to the Legiſlature, was it not to the Parliament of Ireland? This was the whole of the queſtion; and there was a variety of prudential reaſons which prevented him from diſcuſſing the other particulars of the Hon. Gentleman's ſpeech, the conſideration of which might add much to our preſent evils, and could not, by any poſſibility, produce advantage. He would therefore refrain from following the Hon. Gentleman, and only deſire the Houſe to conſider, whether any of the grievances ſtated by him could be remedied otherwiſe than through the

Iriſh

Irish Legislature, or could be attempted to be otherwise remedied, without an endeavour to make force domineer over law. He would, however, trouble the House with a few observations on two points, viz. the claim of the Catholics to sit in Parliament, and the propriety of complying with the wishes of the Dissenters. With respect to the first, could those be said to be without liberty who had every privilege enjoyed by their fellow-subjects, except that of being themselves eligible as representatives? If this privilege was in the view of the Hon. Gentleman, why was it not expressed in his Motion? why was not Government made acquainted with his exact demands? As to the other subject, which was more obscurely and indefinitely hinted at by the Hon. Gentleman, the Dissenters, it was for the House to consider whether they were produced by principles truly English, as he had said, or by those which were most unfit for encouragement, and the adoption of which would be a most ungenerous precedent from Parliament, the doctrines of French liberty, instead of the ancient sturdy freedom of England. The speech of the Hon. Gentleman had hinted much, but told nothing plainly, and he thought it sufficient to urge these practical objections to the Motion, without going into the detail of the observations thrown out in defence of it.

Lord Wycombe thought the situation of Ireland alarming, and that no remedy was to be expected from the Irish Legislature. He approved the cause of Catholic emancipation, and thought the interests of the few should not be sacrificed to those of the many. When the state of the Irish Legislature was considered, he could think of it only as a kind of fiction of our government; and while we obeyed the forms of that legislature, we were sacrificing the real interests of the country.

Lord Hawkesbury could hope no good from the motion, and dreaded much calamity. We had acknowledged the independence of the Irish Legislature, and were now asked to take out of their hands the task of regulating the country, though we had neither the local knowledge nor interests which might make our interference useful. The government of Ireland was, he hoped, what every government should be, a government of property. Property was not made for government, (a cry of Hear! Hear!) but government was made for property.

Mr Fox replied. He thought the motion so far from mischievous, that it would even be of some use, if it should be rejected. If Ireland were really in a state of prosperity, and contented with the government, he did not mean with the person of Lord Camden, he should not have made the motion; but if the whole northern district were declared out of the protection of the law, and 50,000 men were supposed ready for arms, it was then a proper time for interference. The House then divided,

For the Motion,	84
Against it,	220
Majority,	——156

HOUSE OF LORDS.

INVASION OF IRELAND.

March 16. *Lord Albemarle* opened the debate, by going into a general detail of the attempt made by the French on the coast of Ireland, of the situation of the fleets of Admirals Lord Bridport, Colpoys, and Elphinstone; and, considering the French getting safe back into their ports, while we have such a superior navy, as an insult upon the country, and the papers laid on the table as far from exculpatory, there being blame somewhere, moved—"That a committee be appointed to examine into the naval measures taken for the defence of Ireland, on the recent attempt of the French."

Lord Spencer replied at considerable length, and entered into all the particular circumstances, both as to the return of Admiral Colpoys, and the sailing of Lord Bridport. The first, he admitted, was out longer than could have been wished, but denied that his squadron was necessitated to return for want of provisions; and the latter, he insisted, sailed with all possible expedition. He considered that, under all the circumstances of the times, the best possible steps were taken; so much so, that even now, with the same information as he had then, he should be for acting the very same; the whole, in his mind, was to be attributed to the stormy weather; but as the change of men was now intimated as the only means to save the country from the misfortunes attending our disappointment, he should have no

objection to reſign, whenever a ſucceſſor could be found who would arrogate to himſelf the power of controuling the elements.

Lord Auckland was aſtoniſhed at the general depreſſion which ſeemed to pervade all ranks, eſpecially when he conſidered that our navy conſiſted of above 100 ſhips of the line, that we had an army equal to any former times, and that the wealth and reſources of the country were ſtill very great.

Lord Guildford thought, if the argument of the laſt noble ſpeaker would not impreſs the Houſe with the neceſſity of entering into this inquiry, he was ſure that nothing he could ſay would. With reſpect to what the Noble Lord at the head of the Admiralty had ſaid reſpecting the change of men, it was poſſible that the Noble Lord might feel, that, without waiting for his reſigning to one who would arrogate to himſelf the power of controuling the elements, the public wiſhed for thoſe who would make the beſt uſe of thoſe means in their power; for men who would reſtore to them the bleſſings of peace, or at leaſt attempt to procure it them, in a very different manner to what had been adopted; but if the Noble Lord meant to infer, that there were others who were eager to ſucceed him and his colleagues, he knew not where they were, or who poſſeſſed the mad ambition to ſuppoſe they could undertake to reſtore the credit of the Bank, or reſtore thoſe bleſſings the errors of Adminiſtration had deprived us of.

Lord Grenville entered much at large into the ſubject, and defended the whole proceedings as to the ſtationing of the fleets, and the orders given. He then took a general view of our naval conteſts during the whole war, and defied any man to point out any other period of four years, in which the navy of Great Britain had obtained ſo many glorious victories. In that time ſhe had almoſt deſtroyed the navy of France; and yet miniſters were to be condemned, not for not having a fleet at ſea of equal force to our enemy, not for having ſuffered any defeat, but for not having added another victory; and from which they were prevented by the tempeſtuous weather: to that ſtorm alone could the French attribute the eſcape of that fleet which had made the daring attempt, and for which they had nevertheleſs dearly paid, by the loſs of 14 ſhips of war, and between 4000 and 5000 men. His Lordſhip denied that there was any difference made in the defending this kingdom and Ireland, or that there was any ſyſtem purſued by Government which was not for the happineſs of the people. The papers on the table were fully explanatory, and any further inquiry could only mean to imply a cenſure on Adminiſtration, ſince nothing further could be known.

The Marquis of Lanſdowne alluded, in pretty ſtrong terms, to the general neglect with which miniſters invariably treated Ireland: they could not themſelves be ignorant of effects, ſince every information that came from that kingdom brought the melancholy account, that thoſe, who had hitherto boaſted of the good intentions of the Britiſh Cabinet, were now obliged to hold their peace; and he was greatly afraid, if ſome meaſures were not very ſhortly adopted in their favour, it would be too late. This inquiry, in his mind, would anſwer a good purpoſe: and, as it was the province of their Lordſhips to beſtow praiſe when merited, ſo it was their duty to iſſue cenſure where it was due: and therefore it was that he again preſumed to call upon them with his feeble voice, and to implore they would not ſuffer themſelves to be led aſtray, but to refer to their own judgments while we had yet one chance left, and but one, he believed, we had, to preſerve this country from ruin. When he talked of the ruin of the country, he knew the land would ſtill remain, that the people would not be annihilated; but all thoſe bleſſings which we had enjoyed for ages, under our preſent government and glorious conſtitution, would be deſtroyed, and that he conſidered as our ruin.

When the Houſe divided, the numbers were

Contents	14	Non Contents	74
Proxies	1	Proxies	20
	—15		—94

ADDRESS ON THE STATE OF IRELAND.

21. *Lord Moira* profeſſed that nothing but a full conviction of the neceſſity for ſome immediate ſteps to be taken to reconcile the diſcontents now exiſting in Ireland could have induced him to bring forward the motion which he was about to make. From what had fallen on his giving notice of his intention, he had turned his mind to ſee upon what grounds it

it was likely to be oppoſed, and it appeared to him the oppoſition muſt either be, that it would be an improper interference; that it was unneceſſary; or that it would be at this time inexpedient. To the firſt of theſe objections he ſhould reply, that although the legiſlatures of the two kingdoms were ſeparate and diſtinct, yet, as we were under one common ſovereign, there muſt remain an undoubted right in either to addreſs that ſovereign upon any ſubject which involved the intereſts of both. As to the neceſſity, the preſent ſituation of that kingdom was too notorious for him to detain the Houſe by entering into particular details, which, beſides, he thought it would be both delicate and prudent to avoid. Taking it, therefore, for granted, that unhappy and ſerious diſcontents did exiſt, it ſurely muſt be the wiſh of every man who heard him (for it was idle to ſuppoſe that what diſtreſſed one kingdom would not injure the other), that ſome efficient remedy ſhould inſtantly be applied to ſtop the growing evil; and where could that remedy be ſo well ſought for as in the humane breaſt of our benign Sovereign? To that beneficence it was his wiſh to apply; and therefore he hoped that their Lordſhips would agree with him to reſolve—"That an humble addreſs be preſented to his Majeſty, praying him to interfere with his paternal and beneficent care, to heal the diſcontents which now exiſt in Ireland, and which may otherwiſe prove of the greateſt injury to his ſubjects in both kingdoms."

Lord Grenville was ſorry the Noble Lord could not be prevailed upon to poſtpone the motion for the ſpace of two or three days, when it was probable his noble and learned friend, who ſo ably preſided in that Houſe, would have been enabled to attend, and from whoſe wiſdom, judgment, and experience, their Lordſhips might have received ſo much information on the ſubject. As to himſelf, it appeared to be one of the moſt objectionable motions he ever heard made, ſince it went, in fact, to break a ſolemn compact entered into between this country and Ireland, and might, on that account, lead not only to jealouſy, but the moſt alarming miſchief; for all interference in their legiſlative concerns had been ſolemnly renounced by us by act of parliament; and yet this (and he defied any Lord to underſtand the motion otherwiſe) went to that very interference; if it did not mean that, why then it meant nothing; for ſimply to apply to his Majeſty, to exerciſe his paternal care for the benefit of his ſubjects, was only to aſk him to do that which was his conſtant practice; and with reſpect to Ireland, during his Majeſty's whole reign of ſix and thirty years, not one year had he permitted to paſs without beſtowing on them ſome eſſential benefit. His Lordſhip then entered into a detailed ſtate of the kingdom at the period his Majeſty came to the Crown, which was a ſtate of barbariſm compared with his contraſt of the preſent time. Every advantage had regularly been granted them year after year, until about fourteen years ſince, when they complained of this country maintaining the right of interfering in the laws and legiſlation, and even that was given up, by the repeal of the ſtatute of the 6th of George the Firſt; and now, by way of appeaſing a ſuppoſed diſcontent, the Houſe was called upon to adopt a meaſure that muſt naturally excite the jealouſy it was pretended it would allay. That there was not ſome diſcontented perſons in Ireland he would not ſay; but as a proof that theſe diſcontents were much exaggerated, and that they approved of the preſent government, he need only adduce the inſtances of loyalty and unanimity manifeſted by them when the French had the temerity to appear on their coaſt, ſuppoſing (no doubt, in a great meaſure, from the exaggerated reports they had heard) that the people of Ireland were ready to join them. The Catholic paſtors, on this occaſion, had acted with a zeal that ſhewed they were ſenſible of the mildneſs and tenderneſs of the ſovereign under whom they lived. Some of their exhortations were ſo ſtriking, that he could not refrain from reading a few extracts to the Houſe, in which they cautioned their followers againſt liſtening to the inſidious promiſes of the French, who meant only to fraternize with them for their own advantage. Taking the motion in every point of view, it appeared to him highly objectionable, and in none more ſo than in that of its tending to interfere with their legiſlature, and break the ſolemn compact between the two kingdoms; and, of courſe, he ſhould give it his moſt decided negative.

Lord Fitzwilliam highly approved of

the motion, as likely to be of the moſt ſalutary ſervice in allaying thoſe heats and diſcontents, which were, to his knowledge, much greater than the Noble Secretary of State was willing to admit, and which, if not appeaſed in due time, might be attended with the moſt ſerious conſequences.

Lord Moira avowed, he meant it to imply a cenſure on miniſters; and never would he let the conſideration for men have any weight with him when he thought their meaſures merited cenſure. His Lordſhip then went into ſome particulars reſpecting the miſconduct of Government, for he would argue that the adminiſtration of that country was under the influence of the cabinet of this: among other things, he ſaid, they had permitted the moſt barbarous perſecutions to be carried on unmoleſted for more than twelve months, without the leaſt interruption: the Catholics had been deſtroyed in ſeveral diſtricts with impunity; and this he well knew to be the fact, as, upon a part of his own eſtate, ſixty-one families had been driven out, their property plundered, and many of their houſes burnt to the ground. This perſecution made them come forward now to claim the privilege to ſit in parliament; for, they ſaid, if any of our own faith, our own body, had been there to have explained our grievances, we muſt have had relief.

Lord Grenville conſidered the facts detailed by the Noble Lord as the ſtrongeſt reaſons that could be given of the impropriety of agreeing to this motion, ſince they all related to internal and legiſlative regulations.

The Marquis of Lanſdowne could by no means agree with the Noble Secretary of State, that this was an improper interference; for it went no farther than to intreat his Majeſty to ſcrutinize into the meaſures which his miniſters were purſuing in Ireland, and which meaſures had excited ſuch diſcontent as, he feared, it would be very difficult to allay. There could be no doubt but great indulgences had been granted to the Iriſh ſince his Majeſty came to the Crown, but that was no reaſon his miniſters ſhould adviſe him to ſtop ſhort juſt when there was ſome little more to be done. His grandfather, George II. had attached to him the Highlanders in Scotland; and but a little, a very little more, would gain his Majeſty the unanimous hearts of all the people in Ireland—of three millions of people; and this idea brought to his mind the excellent remark in Mr Erſkine's pamphlet, that, ſecure of their hearts, and a little attention to our army and navy, we might bid defiance to every exertion of the enemy; but the good government of Ireland was eſſential to the preſervation of this kingdom; they muſt ſtand or fall together; and he believed there were many, very many in Ireland, who had no other wiſh; but, at the ſame time, he knew there were many who felt themſelves aggrieved, and their Lordſhips ſhould conſider a little the character of the Iriſh: thoſe in the ſouth were remarkable for their bravery, but more particularly for their firmneſs, which they had given repeated inſtances nothing could ſhake; while thoſe of the north were haſty and furious: oppoſite as theſe diſpoſitions were, they agreed in this, that they were not to be managed by force; they might lead, but if miniſters came to compulſion, they would find them the ſooner the more difficulties they might find to ſurmount.

After a very warm debate, in which a great number of their Lordſhips took a part, the Houſe divided, when there appeared for Lord Moira's motion

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Majority againſt it 71.

MONTHLY REGISTER.

GAZETTE INTELLIGENCE.

Parliament Street, March 27.

Extract of a diſpatch from Lieut. General Sir R. Abercromby, K. B. to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas.

Head-quarters, Trinidad, Feb. 27.

SIR, On my arrival in this country, I did not fail to lay before the Admiral my inſtructions, and to conſult with him upon the means to carry them into execution. I found in him every deſire to co-operate in the execution of the views to which they are directed. The arrival of part of the convoy from England

enabled us to proceed with confidence in our operations; therefore, as ſoon as the troops could be collected from the different iſlands, which were ordered to rendezvous at Carlacou, the Admiral ſailed from Martinique, which iſland he left with his ſquadron on the 12th inſt.

The preciſion with which the Admiral had given his orders to aſſemble the ſhips of war and tranſports left us not a moment of delay. On the 15th, in the morning, the fleet ſailed from Carlacou. On the 16th, in the afternoon, it paſſed through the Bocas, or entrance into the Gulph of Paria, where we found the Spaniſh Admiral with four ſail of the line and a frigate at anchor, under cover of the iſland of Caſpargrande, which was fortified.

Our ſquadron worked up, and came to an anchor oppoſite to, and nearly within gun ſhot of the Spaniſh ſhips. The frigates and tranſports were ordered to anchor higher up in the bay, and at the diſtance nearly of five miles from the town of Port d'Eſpagne. The diſpoſition was immediately made for landing at day-light next morning, and for a general attack upon the town and ſhips of war.

At two o'clock in the morning of the 17th, we perceived the Spaniſh ſquadron to be on fire; the ſhips burnt with great fury, one line of battle ſhip excepted, which eſcaped the conflagration, and was taken poſſeſſion of at day-light in the morning, by the boats from our fleet; the enemy at the ſame time evacuated the iſland, and abandoned that quarter.

This unexpected turn of affairs directed our whole attention to the attack of the town. The troops were immediately ordered to land, and, as ſoon as a few hundred men could be got on ſhore, about four miles to the weſtward of it, we advanced, meeting with little or no reſiſtance. Before night we were maſters of Port d'Eſpagne and the neighbourhood, two ſmall forts excepted. In the morning a capitulation was entered into with the Governor Don Chacon, and in the evening all the Spaniſh troops laid down their arms, and the whole colony paſſed under the dominion of his Britannic Majeſty.

Copies of the capitulation, of the ſtores and proviſions taken, are herewith tranſmitted.

It is a peculiar ſatisfaction to me that there is no liſt of killed or wounded; Lieut. Villeneuve, of the 8th regt. of foot, who was Brigade Major to Brigadier-General Hompeſch, being the only perſon who was wounded, and he is ſince dead of his wounds. I have the honour to be, &c. R. ABERCROMBY.

[The principal points of the articles of capitulation are in ſubſtance—that the officers and troops of his Catholic Majeſty in the iſland of Trinidad ſhall ſurrender priſoners of war, and deliver up the territory, forts, buildings, arms, ammunition, money, effects, plans, and ſtores belonging to his Catholic Majeſty. The inhabitants and free people of colour to be protected in their liberty, perſons, property, and religion, on their taking the oath of allegiance to his Britannic Majeſty. The priſoners to be fed at the expence of the Britiſh.

Then follows a return of the Spaniſh garriſon of the iſland of Trinidad, made priſoners of war, conſiſting of 557 Spaniſh officers and men; 7 French officers, and 50 men ſick in the hoſpital.—Of the naval officers, ſeamen, and marines, conſiſting of 91 officers, including 1 Brigadier, 8 Captains, 5 of line-of-battle ſhips, and 3 of frigates; 1032 ſeamen, 581 marines. Total 1704.]

Follows diſpatches from Rear-Admiral Henry Harvey, commander in chief of his Majeſty's ſhips and veſſels at Barbadoes and the Leeward Iſlands; but in which nothing remarkable occurs. The Spaniſh ſhips in the harbour of Shagaramus was as follows:

San Vincente, of 84 guns, burnt; Gallardo, of 74 guns, burnt; Arroganto, of 74 guns, burnt; San Damaſo, of 74 guns, captured; and Santa Cecilia, of 36 guns, burnt.

Downing-ſtreet, April 8.

A diſpatch, of which the following is an extract, has been received by the Rt Hon. Lord Grenville, from Colonel Graham, dated head-quarters of his Royal Highneſs the Archduke Charles, at Vippach, March 20.

In my laſt diſpatch from Udine of the 10th inſtant, I had the honour of informing your Lordſhip, that the Archduke's head-quarters were juſt going to be moved forward to Paperianio, near Codroipo, in conſequence of a report of the French army being in motion towards the Piave. This intelligence was ſoon after confirmed, with the additional account

count of General Maſſena's having penetrated by Feltri into the upper valley of the Piave, and defeated General Luſignan near Bellerno; but it was ſtill doubtful whether their principal corps was advancing towards the Tagliamento merely to cover General Maſſena's column, or to undertake offenſive operations. On the 15th, General Hohenzollern, who had been left with a detachment on the Piave, retired behind the Tagliamento, where the Imperial army was cantoned. On the 16th, about 10 A. M. the enemy advanced by the high road of Valvaſone, and puſhed ſome ſmall parties of cavalry and infantry acroſs the river, which, from the extraordinary drought of the ſeaſon, was every where fordable, but theſe were driven back with ſome loſs. A diſtant cannonade was then kept up during the reſt of the day, till four P. M. when the enemy, having formed a very ſtrong column of a demi-brigade in front, intermixed with cavalry and artillery, advanced rapidly, and croſſed the river near the upper end of that extenſive and open plain, occupied by twelve weak ſquadrons.—His Royal Highneſs' perſonal exertions could not prevent theſe from yielding to ſuch ſuperior force.—After this ſucceſsful attack by the enemy's left, their right wing croſſed the river without oppoſition; but the progreſs of their numerous cavalry was checked by the ſteady behaviour of the regiment of Puis, poſted at the end of the plain next to Codroipo.

The reſt of the infantry was under arms further back near the cantonments, and was not engaged. On ſeeing the enemy's force, which both in cavalry and infantry was greatly ſuperior to that of the Imperial army, the Archduke ordered a retreat after ſunſet. The head-quarters were that night at Ontagnaul, and were removed on the 17th to Viſco, behind Palma, which, not being in a ſtate of defence, was evacuated on the 18th: the head-quarters being removed to Gorice.

On the 19th the enemy advanced towards the Lonzo, in two columns, above and below Gradiſka, which ſerved as a Tete du Pont over that river. Their left was repulſed in an attempt to ſtorm Gradiſka, but their right found little difficulty in croſſing the river near Caſtegliano, though in ordinary ſeaſons it is ſcarcely any where fordable; and as they might there turn the left of the poſition of Gorice it became neceſſary to abandon it. The head-quarters came here this morning.

Downing-Street April 15.

By accounts received from Colonel Graham, dated at the head-quarters of the Archduke Charles at Clagenfurt, March 27th, it appears, that on the 22d an engagement had taken place at Tarvis, between the French, under General Maſſena, and four battalions of Auſtrians, commanded by Major-General Gontreuil. The numbers of the French are ſaid to have been from 12,000 to 15,000.

The Archduke Charles having travelled poſt from Leybach, arrived at Tarvis during the affair, and immediately mounting a priſoner's horſe, during the remainder of the day encouraged the troops by his example, diſplaying the moſt ſignal proofs of perſonal bravery and exertion. In the afternoon, the great ſuperiority of the enemy's numbers prevailed. General Gontreuil, and Count Wratiſlaw, his Royal Highneſs's firſt Aide-de-camp, were ſeverely wounded, and the loſs of men was conſiderable.

By accounts from Vienna, dated April 1ſt, it appears, that letters of the 30th ult. had been received there from Clagenfurt, where the head-quarters of the Archduke Charles ſtill were on that day.—Nothing had happened in that quarter ſince the affair of Tarvis.

Admiralty-Office, April 4.

Extract of a letter from Rear-Admiral Pringle, commander in chief of his Majeſty's ſhips and veſſels at the Cape of Good Hope, to Mr Nepean, dated at that ſettlement on the 15th January laſt.

On the 31ſt ult. his Majeſty's ſhips Jupiter and Sceptre returned here from their cruize off the Mauritius, having captured three ſmall veſſels, two of which they deſtroyed; the third, a brig, arrived the 12th inſtant. Captain Lotack left that ſtation on the 25th of November, having previouſly detached the Crefcent, Braave, and Sphynx, to look into Foul Point and Auguſtine Bay. On the 13th theſe laſt ſhips returned to this place, having captured five veſſels, and alſo deſtroyed an eſtabliſhment of the enemy at Foul Point, upon the iſland of Madagaſcar; the articles of the capitulation which I now incloſe, together with Captain Spranger's letter to me upon the ſubject.

(Follows the letters referred to.)

Cap-

Captures from the Gazette.

Molinette privateer, of 2 ſwivels, and 18 men, by the Swallow ſloop, Capt. Fowke.

La Reſleche privateer, of 12 guns, and 67 men, by the Zephyr, Capt. Ruddach.

Voltigeur privateer, of 8 guns and 8 ſwivels, and 26 men, by the Veſtal, Capt. White. This privateer had done a great deal of miſchief to the trade.

La Sophie cutter privateer, of 14 guns, and 40 men, by the Kangaroo ſloop.

Le General privateer, of 14 guns, but pierced for 18, and 104 men, by the King's Fiſher, Capt. Bligh.

L'Incroyable privateer, of 24 guns, and 220 men, by the Flora and Pearl frigates.

Neptune privateer, of 16 guns, and 90 men, by the Aurora, Capt. Digby.

Two ſmall privateers, by the Sufficient and Racoon ſloops.

(*End of the Gazettes.*)

CONTINENTAL INTELLIGENCE.

March 15. After having made peace with the Pope, General Buonaparte concentrated his army in the Tyrol, with the intention of defeating the Archduke Charles, who was ſtationed there to oppoſe him. It would appear that Buonaparte had begun his movements before the Archduke had got his ſupplies collected. Being unable to oppoſe the French at the paſſage of Tagliamento, he was obliged to retreat from Friuli. Several obſtinate battles were fought, and the Archduke is ſaid to have made a narrow eſcape himſelf from being taken priſoner at Gradiſka. The French then took poſſeſſion of Udini and other places, and advanced againſt Trieſte, which obliged the Archduke to remove to Gratz. After this the Archduke took up his head-quarters at Clagenfurt in Carinthia, which place Buonaparte afterwards took. On the 24th March, General Buonaparte writes to the Directory as follows:

Citizens Directors,

I gave you an account, by my laſt courier, that a column of the army of Prince Charles was hemmed in between the diviſion of General Maſſena, who was at Tarvis, and that of General Guieux, who, on arriving at Caporetto, puſhed it into the defiles.

General Maſſena being arrived at Tarvis, was attacked by a diviſion of the enemy, which left Clagenfurt, and came to the aſſiſtance of the diviſion that was hemmed in. After a conflict extremely obſtinate, he put it to the route, took a vaſt number of priſoners, among whom are three Generals. The Emperor's cuiraſſiers, who arrived from the Rhine, have ſuffered moſt ſeverely.

Meanwhile General Guieux drove the column which he had defeated to Puſero, as far as the Auſtrian Chinſe, a poſt extremely well intrenched, but which was carried by aſſault after a very obſtinate engagement.

The hoſtile column, ſeeing the Chinſe taken, precipitated its march, and fell into the middle of the diviſion of General Maſſena, who, after a ſlight combat, made the whole priſoners, 30 pieces of cannon, 400 waggons carrying the baggage of the enemy, 5000 men, and four generals, fell into our hands.

The chain of the Alps which parts France and Switzerland from Italy, ſeparates the Italian part of Tyrol from the German part, the Venetian States from the dominions of the Emperor, and Carinthia from the county of Gorice and Gradiſka. The diviſion of Maſſena had croſſed the Italian Alps, and came to occupy the defile of the Noric Alps. Our enemies were ſo awkward, as to enthral all their baggage and part of the army, by the Noric Alps, who were that moment taken. The combat of Tarvis was fought above the clouds, on a height which commands Germany; in ſeveral parts to which our line extended, the ſnow lay three feet deep, and the cavalry, charging on the ice, ſuffered accidents, the reſult of which were extremely fatal to the enemy's cavalry.

BUONAPARTE.

LONDON.

March 23. A dreadful fire broke out in the Minories, near the corner of the Little Minories, which was not extinguiſhed till near 30 houſes were conſumed, beſides an immenſe quantity of property, a great deal of which was uninſured. The flames were ſo rapid, that it was with the greateſt difficulty the inhabitants of ſome of the houſes eſcaped their fury; ſeveral were much burnt.

26. This afternoon, about four o'clock, a moſt dreadful fire broke out at the old family manſion of the Duke of St Albans, at Hanworth Park, near Hampton; which, in the courſe of three hours, deſtroyed every part of the building, and

all

all the beautiful gallery of paintings, which were an heir loom with the houſe. Very little of the furniture was ſaved.

April 1. This day another numerous meeting of the Livery was held at Guildhall, (ſee our laſt, page 211.) when the Sheriffs having reported that his Majeſty declined receiving upon the Throne their addreſs for the removal of Miniſters; the following reſolution was paſſed by the meeting, with only one diſſenting voice:—"That the anſwer given to the Sheriffs, when they attended to know his Majeſty's pleaſure, as to the time of receiving their petition, was given by the third ſecretary of ſtate, one of the perſons for whoſe removal they petitioned; that the Sheriffs do again attend at St James', and requeſt a perſonal audience of his Majeſty, at which, if granted, they do repreſent to the King, that it is the privilege of the Livery to preſent petitions to the Sovereign on the throne; and that the Sheriffs do make a report of this application to a future Hall." The Sheriffs attended, according to the above reſolution; when his Majeſty in perſon confirmed the meſſage before delivered by the Duke of Portland.

13. A common-hall was held yeſterday, to receive the Sheriffs' report of the anſwer of his Majeſty, as to the time of receiving the addreſs of the Livery. The anſwer being read, was the ſame in ſubſtance as mentioned above.—Mr Hanſon moved a reſolution, the purport of which was, that it is the privilege of the Livery of London to preſent their addreſs to the King on the throne, and that this right and privilege had never been denied to them but by the corrupt adminiſtration who perſiſted in carrying on the American war againſt the will of the people.—This reſolution which was ſeconded by Mr Waddington, was carried unanimouſly.

17. On Saturday noon, the Duke of Wirtemberg arrived from Chelmsford, with his retinue, at the Royal Hotel, in Pall-Mall. Shortly after his arrival, the Prince of Wales, the Dukes of York and Glouceſter, Lord Grenville, Sir John E. Cox, the Lord-Mayor, and ſeveral other perſons of diſtinction, viſited him: he dined alone at the hotel, and at half paſt ſeven o'clock went in the Duke of York's carriage to Buckingham-houſe, where he was introduced by the Duke in form to their Majeſties, the Princeſs Royal, and the reſt of the Royal Family.

25. Meſſrs Boyd, Robarts, Curtis, Thellusſon, Goldſmid, and E. P. Salomons, waited on Mr Pitt, in Downing-ſtreet, to ſettle the terms of a new loan of 18 millions ſterling, of which 13 is for the ſervice of Great Britain; 1½ for Ireland, and 3½ for his Imperial Majeſty; ſubject, however, to the approbation of Parliament.

English and Iriſh Loan of 14½ Millions.

For every 100l. ſterling.

125l. 3 per cent. conſ. at	50½	£.	63	2	6
50l. 3 per cent. red.	47½		24	15	0
2cl. 4 per cent. -	63½		12	14	0
6s. 6d. long annuity	14½		4	11	0
		£.	105	3	6

Imperial Loan of 3½ Millions.

For every 100l. Sterling.

The account of the mutiny on board the fleet at Portſmouth, (now happily terminated), is delayed for want of room.

It gives very general ſatisfaction, that the new elected Members of the French Directory, are known to be men of moderate principles, and diſpoſed for peace. We ſincerely wiſh and hope, that Mr H. who ſailed upon the 15th, will be able to bring about this deſirable event.

TRIALS FOR PLAYING AT FARO.

Some of theſe were noticed in our laſt, page 211. The following is ſomewhat more remarkable. On the 15th March Mr O'Burne appeared perſonally before Mr Conant, the ſitting juſtice at the Public Office, Marlborough ſtreet, to anſwer the charges exhibited againſt him, by two of Lady Buckinghamſhire's diſcarded ſervants, viz. *firſt*, For keeping a faro bank; and *ſecondly*, For playing at that game, at the houſe of Lady Buckinghamſhire, on the night ſtated in the information, contrary to the laws of the realm, &c. As to the firſt, Mr O'Burne declared, "that he never kept a bank in his life;—to the ſecond, that he was not even preſent on the night ſtated by the witneſſes; but that he had played at faro within the ſix months laſt, and he ſhould, no doubt, amuſe himſelf in the ſame manner again:—how far he had acted contrary to the laws of the realm, he was not able to ſay; but as both the *preſent* and the *late* Lord Chancellor of England had ſtood at the back of his chair, while he was at play, he conceived that if he had violated the laws of his country, to any great extent,

one

one or other of the noble lords would, unqueſtionably, have admoniſhed him for the offence; nay, he was not clear but that the Chancellor of his Majeſty's Exchequer alſo, had been an eye-witneſs of his conduct in ſimilar ſituations. Mr O'Burne added, that it was well for Juſtice herſelf, that informers had not been ſo vigilant a ſhort time ſince, or one of the magiſtrate's brethren, acting, he believed, with him in that office, might have been in ſimilar jeopardy, for amuſing himſelf in his (Mr O'Burne's) company, at the game of Hazard, which he had frequently done!" He cloſed this well-pointed philippic, by ſaying, "that, as it was uncertain how long he might remain in England, he ſhould now pay this penalty of 50l. (which he immediately did,) and thus obtain a *quietus* from (what he termed) this new ſpecies of peculation."

EDINBURGH.

In conſequence of the powers given by the late Act of Parliament, the Royal Bank of Scotland, and the Britiſh Linen Company, have iſſued *Five Shilling* Bank Notes.

The opinion of the Committee on the Inverkeithing election was, that the ſitting member (Mr Cochrane) was duly elected, and that the complaint of the petitioner (Sir John Henderſon) was not frivolous or vexatious.

The Hope gun-boat, was launched a few days ago at Dyſart, which is the firſt veſſel of that deſcription ever launched in Scotland.

Letters from the Lord Mayor of Hull, to the Magiſtrates of Leith, adviſe, that two French privateers had taken, in four days, from ten to twelve ſhips off the Humber.

His Grace the Duke of Buccleugh has intimated to the corps of Royal Edinburgh Light Dragoons his Majeſty's moſt gracious acceptance of their ſervices.

His Majeſty has alſo been pleaſed to accept the ſervices of the Battalion of Royal Highland Edinburgh Volunteers.

It is in contemplation to appoint a militia in Scotland, on the ſame footing as in England. All volunteer corps to be exempted from ſerving in the militia.

April 3. This evening a moſt alarming fire was diſcovered in the manſion-houſe of Yeſter, in Eaſt Lothian, belonging to the Marquis of Tweeddale, but the activity of the ſervants and work men about the place, aided by a numerous body of the inhabitants of the village of Gifford, together with the Haddington engine, and about 100 of the Durham Rangers ſtationed there, ſoon got it under. It appears the fire had been occaſioned by a wooden joiſt being placed too near one of the vents, which had been burning ſome time before burſting forth.

10. This day the Corporation of Hammermen of this city voted a petition and addreſs to his Majeſty for peace, and for the diſmiſſal of his Majeſty's miniſters for ever.

Two thouſand and ſeventy-ſix veſſels have arrived at the port of Leith from the 1ſt January 1796 to the 1ſt January 1797, being an increaſe of 127 veſſels more than the preceding year.

11. This day was brought into Hull, by the Veſtal frigate, the Voltigeur (ci-devant Vengeur) privateer, pierced for 12 guns, but mounting eight, completely equipped with new ſails, rigging, &c. She had been out on her preſent cruize 12 days, and had captured three veſſels. On her former cruize ſhe captured eight veſſels. She was then rigged as a lugger and is the ſame veſſel that has done the principal damage to the trade on this coaſt. A more remarkable mode of decoy was, perhaps, never practiſed: She ſailed among the light colliers coming down, apparently as one of them, without offering the leaſt moleſtation; but when a deeply laden veſſel made its appearance, all her canvas was immediately crowded for purſuit.

12. This day the Magiſtrates of Dumfries conferred the honour of the freedom of that town on Vice-Admiral Sir Thomas Paſley.

It is ſaid that the Treaſury have permitted the diſtillers to warehouſe their ſpirits, in place of advancing duties, which will have a conſiderable effect in raiſing the prices, that are now too low.

13. At a general meeting of the Edinburgh Volunteer Artillery, held at Sommer's Tavern, a letter was read from the Duke of Portland to the Duke of Buccleugh, accepting of the offer of ſervice from that corps.

14. Sailed this morning from Leith roads, in the Martin ſloop of war, for Hamburgh, his Royal Highneſs the Duke D'Angoulême, ſon of Monſieur.

20. The Spaniſh prize, laden with hides,

hides, candles, &c. taken by the Breadalbane letter of marque, belonging to Sibbald and Co. off Cape Finifterre, came up to Leith roads on Tuefday laft.

John Anderfon, Efq; W. S. has preſented the corps of Royal Edinburgh Volunteer Light Dragoons, with a very handſome horſe for a trumpeter. The gentlemen of the corps, in an unanimous vote of thanks, have expreſſed their ſenſe of Mr Anderſon's public ſpirit, and polite attention to the corps.

28. The anniverſary ſermon for the benefit of the Induſtrious Blind, was preached by the Rev. Dr Kemp, to a genteel and reſpectable audience. A liberal collection of 50l. was obtained, for which the Directors embrace this opportunity of returning their warmeſt thanks. The late Mr Gilleſpie of Spylaw has left to the Society a legacy of 150l.

HIGH COURT OF JUSTICIARY.

The Trial of James Harkneſs.

At the aſſizes held at Ayr in autumn 1792, John Thomſon, innkeeper in Mauchline, with his wife, a ſon, and daughter, were tried for the murder of Mungo Miller, tanner in Mauchline, who had been found dead in the ſtreet of that village, by the drummer of the town, in going his rounds upon the morning of the 19th of March 1793. All theſe perſons were acquitted by the verdict of the jury. But David Thomſon, formerly baker in Mauchline, and then a ſoldier in the Elgin fencible regiment, who had been inclicted along with them, was outlawed for non-appearance. In Auguſt laſt, this David Thomſon returned from Ireland, where his regiment was upon duty, and was apprehended upon the petition of the father of the deceaſed. While in jail, he got the ſentence of outlawry recalled, and run his letters to bring on his trial. In December laſt, David Thomſon, who till then had denied all knowledge of the circumſtances attending the death of Mungo Miller, emitted a declaration, accuſing James Harkneſs, clerk to Mr Gavin Hamilton, writer in Mauchline; and Mr Harkneſs having voluntarily gone to Ayr and ſurrendered himſelf on hearing of this accuſation, was committed to priſon, and afterwards executed his letters of intimation to bring on a trial. The libel being found relevant, the evidence for the proſecutor was led, the only part of which, which tended materially to criminate the priſoner, was the teſtimony of David Thomſon, who poſitively ſwore, That, on the night between the 18th and 19th of March 1793, he had been called out of his houſe by Janet Thomſon, daughter of John Thomſon, the innkeeper, who had been formerly tried; and that, on following her to her father's houſe, he was taken by her into a low room, where he found the father, mother, and her brother, along with James Harkneſs, ſtanding by the dead body of Mungo Miller:—That Harkneſs confeſſed himſelf to have been the murderer, and offered the witneſs money to aſſiſt in carrying the body to the place where it was found next morning; which he refuſing, the perſons preſent, with the aſſiſtance of another man then in the houſe, carried out the body themſelves. In this ſtory he was directly contradicted by the family of John Thomſon, and by the other perſon whom he alledged to have been employed in carrying out the body. His account of the wounds was alſo not conſiſtent with the fact as proven by the ſurgeon examined, and others; and there were ſeveral improbabilities in his narrative.—On the part of the priſoner, it was proven by his maſter, Mr Gavin Hamilton, that he performed buſineſs for him on the evening of the alledged murder, and went to his bed at the uſual hour, without any appearance of guilt in his conduct. His character was alſo eſtabliſhed to be good by the ſame evidence;—and Janet Thomſon entirely contradicted the ſtory of the ſoldier.—The jury were incloſed at two o'clock on Tueſday morning, they all in one voice found the pannel not guilty.

CIRCUITS.

3. The Circuit Court was opened at Perth by the Right Hon. the Lords Swinton and Dunſinnan. Robert Watſon, accuſed of theft, and Katherine Muir, alſo accuſed of theft, petitioned for baniſhment; to which the Advocate Depute conſented; and Watſon is baniſhed from Scotland for life, and Muir for ſeven years.—Patrick Blair of Norrieſton, accuſed of aſſault, and John Laing, alſo accuſed of aſſault, failing to compear, were outlawed.—The Advocate Depute deſerted the diet, *pro loco et tempore*, againſt Charles Graham, troker, accuſed of houſe-breaking and theft, and horſe-ſtealing, and he was recommitted on a new warrant.—Alexander Muir was accuſed of culpable homicide; but the

Jury

Jury found the libel not proven; whereupon he was affoilzied and difmiffed.—The Court heard and determined three appeals from inferior courts.

8. The Circuit Court was opened at Aberdeen by the Right Hon. the Lords Swinton and Dunfinnan. James Stewart was accufed of adminiftering poifon to John Glafs, with an intention to deftroy him. The Advocate Depute reftricted the libel to an arbitrary punifhment; being found guilty, he was fentenced to tranfportation for fourteen years.—John Davidfon was tried for an aflault; he was found not guilty.—Alexander Donald was accufed of ftealing an ox; not proven.—There was no criminal bufinefs before the Court at Invernefs.

(*The remainder of the Circuits in our next.*)

FIARS.

Of Mid-Lothian—1796.

Beft Wheat,	L. 1	5	9
Second ditto,	1	4	0
Beft Barley,	1	2	6
Second ditto,	1	1	0
Third ditto,	0	19	6
Beft Oats,	0	14	4
Second ditto,	0	12	2
Oatmeal,	0	15	6
Peafe and Beans,	0	14	3

Of Fifefhire—1796.

White Wheat	L. 1	3	0
Red Wheat	1	2	0
Barley,	0	19	6
Bear,	0	18	6
Meal by Weight,	0	17	0
Meal by Meafure,	0	13	0
Rye,	0	13	0
Peafe and Beans,	0	14	0
Malt,	1	4	6

DURING almoft the whole of the month of April, the weather has been cold and unpleafant, the prevailing winds being from the eaft; the thermometer from 43° to 62° in the fhade. We had little rain, though a good many flight fhowers, fo that the ground was always in a ftate fit for culture. Vegetation, however, has made very little progrefs. The Edinburgh markets have been well fupplied with fifh, particularly haddocks and turbet. Salmon good, but high in price, from 1s. to 1s. 6d. per lb. Beef and mutton 6d. and 7d. Veal 5d. and 6d. Lamb 3s. and 4s. the quarter. Butter 14d. per lb. Grain of all forts very low.—The Engliih report not yet come to hand.

LISTS.

MARRIAGES.

At the Cape of Good Hope, Major Hugh Baillie, of the 86th foot, to Mifs Eliza Reynett.

April 5. At Kenmure, Mr John Balfour, to Mifs Corbet, daughter of the late James Corbet, Efq; of Kenmure.

— At Leith, Wm Hagart, Efq; to Mifs Helen Campbell.

6. At London, Colonel Grofvenor, to Mifs Heathcote, fifter to Sir Gilbert Heathcote, Bart.

10. At Paifley, Mr Thomas Lowndes, nephew of Thomas Lowndes, Efq, of Arthurlie, to Mifs Ifabella Gillies, daughter of the Rev. Mr Gillies, one of the miniflers of Paifley.

17. At London, the Rt Hon Lord Vifcount Brome, fon of Marquis Cornwallis, to Lady Louifa Gordon, daughter of the Duke of Gordon.

18. At London, Lord Vifcount Garlies, eldeft fon of the Earl of Galloway, to Lady Jane Paget, daughter of the Earl of Uxbridge.

20. At Morpeth, Lieutenant Bruce, of the Berwickfhire light dragoons, to Mifs Margaret Ann Bates, daughter of the late Dr Bates, rector of Wharton, in Northumberland.

21 Mr George Napier, writer in Edinburgh, to Mifs Jeffery, daughter of George Jeffrey, Efq; Depute Clerk of Seffion.

24. At Leith, Mr James Paterfon, merchant in Glafgow, to Mifs Chriftiana Lockhart, daughter of Ephraim Lockhart, Efq.

--- At Greenock, the Rev. Wm M'Cartney, to Mifs Janet Park.

28. Lieut.-Colonel Charles Maitland to Mifs Napier, daughter of the Hon. Major General Napier.

BIRTHS.

March 30. At Vache Park, Bucks, the Lady of James Grant, Efq; a fon.

2. Mrs Dalgleifh of Scotftaig, a fon.

16. Lady Charlotte Campbell, a daughter.

— At Crofbie, Mrs Murray, a fon.

19. Mrs Stewart of Lefmurdie, a fon.

21. Mrs Gordon of Aberdour, a fon.

DEATHS.

At the Cape of Good Hope, Colonel Thomas Grey, fon of General Sir Charles Grey, K. B.

In the Eaft Indies---Lieut. Clement Gore, of the artillery. Major Robert Dennies, infantry. Aflifant Surgeon Patrick Macculloch. Captain Hector Bennet. Lieut. Fireworker, John Cooper Hope. Lieut. Andrew Williamfon, late 94th foot. And Lieut. John Taylor, Major of Brigade.

At Calcutta, Joſeph York Kinloch, Eſq; ſon of the late Sir James Kinloch Nevay, Bart.

At Jamaica, Capt. Thomas Leſlie, of the brig Princeſs of Wales.

At Bogiepore, in the Eaſt Indies, Mr David Wood, Surgeon.

At Bergen, in Norway, John Wallace, Eſq; Britiſh Conſul for the north parts of Norway.

At Columbo, Lieut.-Col. George Petrie, of the 75th foot.

Lately, at Meſſingham, in Lincolnſhire, a poor woman, named Winnifred Foyton, aged 104.

At Sevenoakes, in Kent, John Pratt, Eſq; uncle to his excellency Earl Camden, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

At London, Captain Wm Cochrane, of 2d battalion of the royals.

Mr Guſtavus Vaſa, the African, well known by the intereſting narrative of his life, ſuppoſed to be written by himſelf.

March 17. At his houſe in the iſle of Sky, Alexander Macleod, Eſq; of Ferinlea, aged 87.

21. At Aberdeen, Mrs Nicholas Leith, in the 86th year of her age, daughter of the late George Leith, Eſq; of Overhall.

22. At Briſtol, Capt. Peter Buchannan, of the 22d regt. ſon to Thomas Buchannan, Eſq. of Leney.

25. At Mill of Birney, county of Moray, Janet Stronach, aged 101. She was mother of a child 80, grandmother to 24, and great-grandmother to 28.

In the laſt week of March, Sir Thomas Gunſton. On the 2d of April, his brother, John Gunſton, Eſq;—and on the 7th inſt. Mrs Elizabeth Gunſton, ſiſter to the above gentlemen.

2. At Glaſgow, Mr Mathew Gilmour, writer.

4. At Edinburgh, Baſil Alves, Eſq; Fort-Major of Edinburgh Caſtle.

5. At Aſton, in Yorkſhire, the Rev. Wm Maſon, A. M. author of Elfrida, and ſeveral celebrated Poems.

7. At Muirhouſe, Mrs Margaret Hamilton, in the 95th year of her age, daughter of the deceaſed James Hamilton, Eſq; of Dalzell.

— Mr Hall, engraver to his Majeſty.

8. At Spyelaw, James Gilleſpie, Eſq; of Spyelaw. He has left a large fortune which he acquired as a tobacconiſt in Edinburgh.

— At Ury, Robert Barclay Allardyce, Eſq; M. P. for the county of Kincardine.

— At Glaſgow, Mrs Robina Campbell, daughter of the late James Goodlet Campbell, Eſq; of Auchlyne.

— At London, Lady Elena Bennet, daughter of the Earl of Tankerville.

9. At Edinburgh, Miſs Ann Scott, daughter of Francis Scott, Eſq. of Queen-ſtreet.

— At London, Lady Johnſtone, widow of the late Sir James Johnſtone, Bt. of Weſterhall.

11. At Gielſton, Alexander Lennox, Eſq; of Gielſton.

16. At Edinburgh, Mr James Beveridge, writer in Edinburgh.

13. Peter Maxwell, Eſq; late Provoſt of Dundee.

— George Williſon, Eſq; late portrait painter in India.

— At Culroſs, Mr David Ireland, writer there.

— The Hon. George Baillie of Jervilwood brother to the late Earl of Haddington.

17. Dr Ronald Macvicar, late of the iſland of Dominica.

— Mr T. Y. Learmouth, 2d ſon of Mr John Learmouth, merchant in Edinburgh.

18. At Broughton farm, Mr Thomas Wood, aged 96.

20. Rt Hon. Lord Viſcount Ranelagh.

21. Mr Wm Nicol, late one of the maſters of the High School, Edinburgh.

21 Thomas Taylor, Eſq; one of the oldeſt Captains in the royal navy.

22. Thomas Ballantine, Eſq; of Hollilee in the 81ſt year of his age.

26. Duncan Campbell, Eſq; Collector of Exciſe, Glaſgow.

30. At Perth, John Rutherford of Edmonſtonhandy, Eſq; writer, in the 87th year of his age. He practiſed law without interruption, and with inflexible integrity, for upwards of 60 years.

PREFERMENTS.

Richard White, Eſq of Bantry, to be Baron Bantry, in the kingdom of Ireland.

William Benſinck, Eſq; to be Governor of the iſland of St Vincent.

George Beckwith, Eſq; to be Governor of the Bermuda iſlands.

Stephen De Lancey, Eſq; to be Governor of the iſland of Tobago.

Prices of Grain at Haddington, April 28.

Wheat, 22s. 6d. Barley, 17s. 6d. Oats, 12s. 6d. Peaſe, 10s. 6d. Beans 12s.

Edinburgh, April 29. Oat-meal, 11d. Bear-meal, 9d. Peaſe-meal, 8d.

PRICES OF STOCKS.

April 12.	April 28.
Bank Stock ſhut	122
3 per cent. red. 50 5/8 1/8 3/8 3/4	48 1/4 3/8 3/4 5/8
3 per cent. conſ. 50 1/4 50 5/8 51 1/4	48 1/4 3/8 1/8
4 per cent. 63 7/8 3/8 5/8	62 61 1/2
India Stock 149 1/2	150 1/4
India Bonds 0 diſc.	0 diſc.

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For MAY 1797.

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EDINBURGH:

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IMPORTANT DISCOVERIES.

WATERING TAFFETAS.

IT is remarkable to what trifling accidents we often owe the moſt material diſcoveries in the arts; to the following we are indebted for the art of watering taffetas:

There was about the beginning of the laſt century an Engliſhman of the name of Octavio May, who ſettled at Lyons. He was a man of very good capacity, and great diligence in his trade, but, by a chain of unlucky events, was brought into embarraſſing circumſtances.

In this melancholy ſtate, ſtanding one day at his ſhop-door, brooding over his misfortunes, he happened to put a little tuft of raw ſilk into his mouth, and grinding it for ſome time between his teeth, without conſidering what he was about, at laſt ſpit it out. As it fell immediately before him, he obſerved that it had a very unuſual luſtre, which ſtruck him ſo much that it brought him out of his fit of the vapours. He took it up and conſidered it; and, being a man of reflection, he immediately traced the whole progreſs of the operation; the grinding between the teeth; the mixture of a clammy liquor, ſuch as the ſaliva; and the performing that in a place neceſſarily warm as the mouth.

On theſe conſiderations he went to work; and following nature as cloſe as he could, in a little time produced thoſe luſtered or watered taffetas now ſo univerſally uſed.

MAY acquired an immenſe fortune by this incident, and eſtabliſhed a manufacture which has been a continual ſource of riches to that city ever ſince.

The diſcovery of Pruſſian blue was owing to a ſomewhat ſimilar accident.

RECEIPT *for removing the Taſte of Turnips from Milk or Butter, induced by the Animal feeding on that Vegetable.*

DISSOLVE a little ſalt petre, and put it into the milk, immediately on coming from the cow, or into the churn along with the cream. Waſhing the utenſils uſed, with water in which ſalt petre has been diſſolved, will have the ſame effect.

STAMPED PAPER.

THIS object, which adminiſters ſo conſiderably to revenue, is but little known in its origin and progreſs. We lay before our readers the following ſketch extracted from the admirable work of Profeſſor Beckmann of Gottingen:

The firſt uſe of the Stamp was in the way of Protocoll, to prevent the forgery of legal inſtruments—they were obliged to be written upon paper, at the top of which were marked the name of the Intendant of Finances, and the date when the paper was made.

The firſt application to revenue was this:—The States of the United Provinces having promiſed a reward to him who ſhould invent a tax productive to the Government, and not burthenſome to the people, ſome perſon propoſed that of *Bezageld brieven*, or ſtamped paper, which was approved. Boxhorn, from whom the information is derived, conſiders it a very proper tax. He was of opinion that it might be adopted advantageouſly in other countries; this did happen ſoon after his death, which was in 1653.

In Holland, however, ſtamped paper was introduced on the 13th of Auguſt, 1624, by an ordinance repreſenting its neceſſity and benefit.—Among other things advanced in its favour, it was ſaid that it would tend to leſſen law-ſuits.

This Tax was introduced in the Electorate of Saxony, by ordinance of the 22d of March 1682; and into that of Brandenburg on the 15th of July the ſame year.

In Hanover it was firſt introduced, as I think, on February 20. 1709.

Stamp duties were firſt introduced into G. Britain by Stat. 5 & 6 W. & M. c. 21.

THE

SCOTS MAGAZINE,

For MAY 1797.

THE LIFE OF JAMES BOSWELL, ESQ.

THIS gentleman was born at Edinburgh, on the 29th of October 1740. His father Alexander, was an eminent Judge in the Supreme Courts of Seſſion and Juſticiary in Scotland, by the title of Lord Auchinleck, from the barony of that name in Ayrſhire, which has been the property of the family for almoſt three centuries. His mother was Mrs Euphemia Erſkine, deſcended in the line of Alva from the noble houſe of Mar. He received his education at the ſchool of Mr James Mundell, in Edinburgh. Having ſtudied civil law for ſome time, he went for one winter to continue it at the univerſity of Glaſgow, where he attended the lectures of the celebrated Dr Adam Smith, on moral philoſophy and rhetoric.

He viſited London for the firſt time in 1760, when he acquired an enthuſiaſtic notion of the felicity of a London life, which indeed always predominated with him, as he was ſeldom happy when out of it. He reſided for ſome time at the houſe of the late Earl of Eglinton, where he was introduced into the circles of the great, the learned, and the gay. During this time he publiſhed ſome trifles in proſe and verſe, without a name, which he has not thought worthy of a longer life, than is uſually alloted to juvenile amuſements.

His earneſt wiſh was to procure a commiſſion in the guards, but at his father's requeſt he returned to Edinburgh, and ſtudied law, and by his agreeable manners recommended himſelf to the notice and was admitted into the ſocieties of the moſt diſtinguiſhed literary characters in that metropolis. Here he paſſed his trials as a civilian, before a committee of the Faculty of Advocates. In the year 1762, he again viſited London, and was again deſirous of obtaining a commiſſion in the guards, but his father offered him, on condition of relinquiſhing this, and ſtudying civil law for one year at Utrecht, that he ſhould afterwards be indulged to travel on the continent. In 1763, he publiſhed, with his name, a volume of "Letters between the Honourable Andrew Erſkine and James Boſwell, Eſq." a publication in which the correſpondents exerciſed the playfulneſs of fancy ſometimes a little too extravagantly. At this time he obtained the acquaintance of Dr Samuel Johnſon, and this incident gave a new turn to his purſuits, and directed his mind into a peculiar channel, from which the public have reaped no little amuſement, and ſome inſtruction.

At Utrecht, he ſtudied under the German profeſſor Trotz, and made excurſions to other parts of the Seven Provinces, particularly the Hague. He then accompanied the Earl Mariſchal of Scotland into Germany, and being well recommended, paſſed ſome time at many of the courts; viſited Rouſſeau and Voltaire; croſſed the Alps into Italy, where he kept company for ſome time with Lord Mountſtuart. The moſt remarkable part of his travels was his viſit to Corſica, where he became acquainted with General Paoli. In 1766, he returned to Scotland, and was admitted an Advocate before the

Court of Seſſion, where he practiſed for ſome years ſucceſsfully. When the famous Douglas cauſe was in agitation, he appeared voluntarily on the ſide of Mr Douglas, and publiſhed the ſubſtance of the proofs and arguments in a pamphlet called "The Eſſence of the Douglas Cauſe," and ſupported his client by various eſſays, &c. in the newſpapers. In 1768, he publiſhed "An Account of Corſica, with the Journal of a Tour to that Iſland, and Memoirs of Paſcal Paoli," a work highly amuſing, and well received by the public. It was tranſlated into Dutch, German, Italian, and French. In 1769, he married Miſs Peggie Montgomery, his couſin german, a lady of excellent ſenſe and affectionate temper. One of her *bons mots* is given in his life of Johnſon. Thinking that the doctor had too much influence over her huſband, ſhe ſaid, with ſome warmth, "I have ſeen many a bear led by a man, but I never before ſaw a man led by a bear."

In 1782, he ſucceeded, by the death of his father, to the eſtate of Auchinleck. In 1783, at the time Mr Fox's India Bill was thrown out, he publiſhed "A Letter to the People of Scotland on the preſent ſtate of the Nation," in which he took part with Mr Pitt's friends. In 1785, an attempt having been made to diminiſh the number of the fifteen Lords of Seſſion in Scotland, he conſidered it as a moſt pernicious meaſure, and a violation of the Union, and wrote another "Letter to the People of Scotland," which had conſiderable effect, and the ſcheme was given up. In 1785, ſome months after Dr Johnſon's death, he publiſhed a "Journal of a Tour to the Hebrides, with Samuel Johnſon, L. L. D." a work of ſuch peculiar texture as to catch the public attention in no common manner, and paved the way for a favourable reception of the life of that great man, written on a ſimilar plan.

Determined to try his fate as a lawyer in England, he was called to the bar in Hilary Term 1786, and the following winter he removed his family to London. Soon after he was elected recorder of Carliſle, but after holding it about two years, he reſigned it. His ſucceſs at the Engliſh bar was, however, very inconſiderable. In 1789 his wife died, leaving him five children, two ſons and three daughters; of the latter, one died a few months ago. In 1791, he publiſhed what he called his *magnum opus*, "The Life of Dr Samuel Johnſon," in two vols. quarto, which had a rapid ſale, and has ſince been reprinted in three vols. 8vo. With all the objections that have been made to the plan of this work, and ſome of them are not ſo eaſily anſwered, it is not poſſible to mention a work of equal entertainment.

About the cloſe of the year 1794, he viſited Auchinleck, and ſoon after his return, he was ſeized with a diſorder, which proved fatal on Tueſday, June 19th, 1795. He had ſomewhat of a conſtitutional melancholy about him, which he often complained of; and he flew for relief, where perhaps it is beſt to be found, in the ſociety of the learned and the gay. Here, as he confeſſes, "he had rather too little than too much prudence," and with more attachment to rural life, he might, probably, have lengthened his days.

His friends loſt no time in beſtowing their tributes to his memory, but the firſt moments of regret for the loſs of a friend are not the happieſt for a faithful account of his character. He was a moſt pleaſant companion, affectionate and friendly; but, particularly in his latter days, he betrayed a vanity which ſeemed to predominate. He loved praiſe, and if he did not ſeek it, he never let it be forgotten. In all his writings this failing is diſtinguiſhable, but he could leaſt conceal it, after the various compliments paid to him in conſequence of the publication of Dr Johnſon's life. His abilities were certainly not of the firſt rate, and when he ſtrikes, it is rather in little things than in

in great undertakings. His convivial habits, after Dr Johnſon's death, led him into company that did not always accord with his ſenſe of dignity and propriety, and he uſed to compoſe ludicrous ſongs for election dinners, which he ſung in a manner that procured him no reſpect. He was, however, one of thoſe men to whom the literary world lies under obligations, for having given the moſt finiſhed and minute picture of a great character that ever was exhibited. We allude to his Life of Johnſon. "It has been thought," ſays one of his friends, "that ignorance has been wantonly expoſed, and the privacy of ſocial life endangered. I ſhall not enter deeply into this queſtion. All that I can certainly affirm is, that the work has been read with avidity and pleaſure; and that he who does not wiſh to read it again may be ſuſpected to be deficient in taſte and in temper."

BIOGRAPHICAL MEMOIRS OF THE LATE MR WARTON.

WITH SOME ACCOUNT OF HIS WRITINGS.

AS I ſee you admit into your valuable Miſcellany ſeveral characters of men eminent for learning and for merit, I addreſs myſelf to your indulgence, in hopes of procuring a place in your Repoſitory for a ſhort ſketch of the life, learning, and amiable character of the late Mr Warton.

The late excellent Dr Johnſon, ſpeaking of a celebrated author, ſays, "It is altogether as equitable ſome account ſhould be given of thoſe who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their *writings*, as of thoſe who are renowned for great *actions*; and ſince their genius is diſcovered by their works, it is but juſt that their virtues ſhould be recorded by their friends. For no modeſt man (as the perſon I write of was in perfection) will write his own panegyric; and it is hard they ſhould go without reputation, only becauſe (from their modeſty) they ſhould more deſerve it." "Not a learned man or a poet can die in France, but all Europe muſt be made acquainted with the whole of their lives. They are very juſt to the merits of eminent men." I am convinced, that if they had had among them the amiable perſon I am writing of, whoſe memory muſt be ever dear to all lovers of literature, and knew how to value his merit, his learning, and, above all, his goodneſs of heart, that he would have been a ſubject of their panegyric. We cannot go beyond what the public voice has already declared to be the opinion of all who knew Mr Warton; and I am happy to pay this ſmall tribute to the memory of ſo good a man, and departed genius.

Who would not ſing for Lycidas? He knew
Himſelf to ſing, and build the lofty rhyme.
He muſt not ſleep in his lone grave,
Unwept — —
Without the meed of ſome melodious tear.

The reader is not to expect in this ſhort ſketch any wonderful adventures, wild ſchemes of ambition, "hair-breadth 'ſcapes," or ſtrange turns of fortune; his life was private and blameleſs; the mild virtues of benevolence, gentleneſs, and kindneſs, in the moſt extenſive ſenſe of the word, were the prevailing traits in his character.

Mr Warton was deſcended from an ancient and honourable family in the north of England, from Sir Michael Warton, Bart. of Warton Hall, Lancaſhire, and of the wealthy and reſpectable family of the ſame name at Beverly, in Yorkſhire. The parents of both his father and mother lived in affluence, and were eminently good. The father of Mr Warton, indeed, deſerves ſeparately an eulogium, for merit, learning, and for genius; he was highly reſpected, not only for his literary talents (which were great), but for his worth and virtues. He was Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford, and Profeſſor of Poetry in that Univerſity, univerſally

eſteemed for learning and for genius. He had two ſons and one daughter, but did not live to have the happineſs to ſee thoſe ſons, "the learned brothers," (as Dr Johnſon calls them, with whom they were intimately acquainted) arrive at their future literary fame. Dr Joſeph Warton, the eldeſt ſon, whoſe public and private character is above all praiſe, and Mr Warton, the ſubject of this memoir, equally eſtimable, were both very young men when they had the misfortune of loſing their excellent father. Mr Warton was then a mere youth of fifteen or ſixteen years. His mother ſurvived her worthy huſband for ſome years: ſhe was daughter to the Rev. Mr Richardſon, of Dunſfold, Surrey, a man of exemplary character, and ſhe inherited all his virtues. My then young friend, before the age of ſixteen, was choſen for his literary merit Scholar of Trinity College, Oxford. He went through his academical ſtudies with great applauſe; and, young as he was, a generous and noble emulation grew up with him, which puſhed him upon ſtriving to excel, and which, in fact, ſoon made him an ornament to his college, in one of the moſt learned and polite univerſities in the world. He very early diſtinguiſhed himſelf by the ſuperiority of his exerciſes. It is certain his excellent poem, "The Progreſs of Diſcontent," (ſee Dodſley's Collection, and Mr Warton's poems) owed its origin to ſome Latin verſes ſubjoined to a theme when he was a mere boy, with which the then Preſident, Dr Huddeſford, was ſo much pleaſed that he deſired him to paraphraſe them in Engliſh. And I have heard, from the beſt authority, that his beautiful poem, "The Pleaſures of Melancholy," which it has been ſaid by the firſt critic of the age would not have diſgraced the later works of Pope, was written at the very early age of ſixteen. But on the head of his early genius I ſhall more expatiate, when I enter on the ſubject of his great mental endowments.

Mr Warton proceeded M. A. 1750, B. D. 1767; was elected Poetry Profeſſor on the death of Mr Hawkins, which he reſigned in 1771, about which time he was elected F. A. S. In the year 1771 the Earl of Litchfield preſented him with the living of Kiddington, in Oxfordſhire, and he had alſo the donative of Hill-Farance, in Somerſetſhire. In 1787 his Majeſty preſented him with the Laureatſhip; and in the ſame year he was choſen Camden Profeſſor in the Univerſity of Oxford, on the reſignation of Dr Scot.

Mr Warton was the Senior Fellow of his College, in which he had reſided 45 years. So many years of almoſt conſtant reſidence had peculiarly endeared him to that ſociety, of which he was ſo great an honour; and the laſt moments of his blameleſs life were then finiſhed, ſurrounded by his friends. He had been ſome little time before indiſpoſed with the gout (which by exerciſe he had many years eſcaped), but was thought in a fair way of recovery: —the day which preceded his lamented death (May 20. 1790,) he appeared remarkably chearful, and ſupped and paſſed the evening in the common room, amongſt his friends of the college. Between ten and eleven he ſunk in his chair; they thought him only dozing, but, on approaching him, to their inexpreſſible grief, found he was ſeized with a paralytic ſtroke, and quite dead on one ſide. He was immediately conveyed to his room, but continued inſenſible till the next day, when it pleaſed Heaven to take him to itſelf. Had he been called to the taſk of fortitude and reſignation, by a long ſtate of ſuffering in a painful illneſs, no doubt but that calmneſs and patience for which he was eminent, would not have forſaken him; but he was ſpared this trial by the above ſudden and (I humbly truſt) eaſy paſſage from this life to that of a better ſtate; which is perfectly congenial to the goodneſs and philanthropy which ſo peculiarly diſtinguiſhed him. Though he was called

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